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HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

BY

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IN FIVE VOLUMES.

VOLUME II.

POSSESSIONS IN THE WEST INDIES.

'FAR as the breeze can bear—the billows foam—
SURVEY OUR EMPIRE!'

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INTRODUCTION

TO THE

SECOND VOLUME

OF THE

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

EUROPE emerging from the dark ages which for centuries had shrouded the genius of her sons, was roused from her long lethargy at the close of the 15th century, one of those memorable epochs when the human mind bursts through the shackles of ignorance and prejudice, thinks for itself, and approximates yet closer to the maximum of intelligence allotted unto mortals. The invention* of the art of printing, the discovery of the compass and astrolabe, the knowledge of gunpowder, &c. &c., all conduced at this period to stimulate men to investigate hypotheses heretofore neglected, and among the speculative opinions of the day was the possible existence of a Western Continent. The master-mind of Prince Henry of Portugal had already traced the African shores to the Cape Verd isles, and meditated a passage round the Southern cape to the rich kingdoms of the East;—an obscure navigator, yet bolder, contemplated a shorter route across the wild and heretofore unknown waste

* I say invention and discovery as in common parlance, but it is more than probable that what were then termed discoveries was merely imported information from China and the eastern hemisphere, where printing, the compass, astrolabe, gunpowder, &c. were long known.

of the western waters, where it had long been surmised a vast transatlantic territory gave rotundity and balance to the world. Then was the tradition remembered, that at a period of time indefinitely remote, there existed a vast insular territory, stretching beyond the coasts of Africa and Europe, which bore the appellative of *Atlantis;* and that for three days this western land was shaken to its foundations by the incessant and hourly increasing concussions of an earthquake, when it at length yielded to the irresistible and unseen mysterious power, and sunk with its immense population beneath the bosom of the ocean!* Nor ware the chronicles of Wales forgotten—namely, that in 1170, *Madoc* son to *Owen Quineth*, Prince of Wales, seeing his two brethren at debate who should inherit, prepared certain ships with men and munition and left his country to seek adventures by sea: leaving 'Ireland N. he sayled W. till he came to a land vnknown: returning home and relating what pleasant and fruitfull countries he had seene, without inhabitants, and for what barren ground his brethern and kindred did murther one another, he provided a number of ships, and got with him such men and women as were desirous to liue in quietnesse, who arrived with him in this new land, in the yeare 1170.†

As if in confirmation of these statements, pieces of curiously

* This is the recorded tradition of Plato and the ancients, and on examining the geological features of the different West Indian islands, in the following pages there will be found a remarkable confirmation of the earthquake tradition: in particular vide 'Bermudas' chapter.

† I notice these events in order to induce the attention of the rising generation to the *geography* of our possessions, which is so little known even in the highest quarters, that *Berbice* is marked (*printed*) in an *official* document in the House of Commons as an *island*, and placed among the Bahamas!

carved wood, large jointed reeds, and trees of a kind unknown in Europe, were picked up to the westward of Cape St. Vincent, and at the Azores after long continued westerly winds. At Flores the bodies of two human beings were washed ashore, whose colour and features were distinct from those of any heretofore seen men; and a singularly wrought canoe was also driven on the same coast. Several Portuguese navigators thought they had seen three islands when driven far to the westward, and the sons of the discoverer of Terceira perished in seeking them, while the legends of the Scandinavian voyagers told of a mysterious Vin-land, enveloped in danger, and surrounded by the awful superstitions of the northern mariners.* Urged by these and many other indications, as also by some sound geographical reasonings, Columbus, a Genoese seaman, of a hardy character, and chivalrous spirit—imbued with the religious enthusiasm of the times, and actuated by a lofty desire for fame, after in vain tendering his services to several European monarchs, finally engaged in the employ of the politic Ferdinand and magnanimous Isabella of Castile and Arragon, sailed from Palos with two barks or caravals and a decked ship, on the 3rd of August 1492, and on the 12th of Oct. set at rest a long agitated question by discovering and landing

* Among the visions and delusions of the day was that recorded of the inhabitants of the Canary isles, who imagined that from time to time they beheld a vast island to the westward, with lofty mountains and deep vallies. It was said to be distinctly seen in cloudy or hazy weather, or only for short intervals, while sometimes in the clearest atmosphere not a trace of it was visible. The Canary people were so convinced of the reality of the island, that they applied for and obtained permission from the King of Portugal to fit out various expeditions in search of it, but in vain; the island, however, still continued to deceive the eye occasionally, and it was identified by many with the legendary isle alleged to have been discovered by a Scottish Priest St. Brandan in the 6th century, and was actually laid down in several old charts, as St. Brandan's or St. Borodon's isle.

one of the Bahama islands, now in our possession, and called by its discoverer San Salvador.

Cuba was the next island of importance discovered; then Haiti or St. Domingo, where the Spaniards formed a colony, and gave the isle the name of Espanola (Hispaniola.) It would be out of place to detail the further progress of maritime adventure: in the three succeeding voyages of Columbus, the main land near Trinidad, and several islands were explored, and as years rolled on, the Spaniards extended their colonies to Jamaica, Cuba, Trinidad, Porto Rico, &c. and finally to Mexico and Peru, under adventurers such as Cortez.

For some years the Spaniards were left in almost undisputed possession of the West Indies; but the French and English* began to molest them, the former in 1536, the latter in 1565, under the command of Captain Hawkins; in 1572, by the celebrated Francis Drake; and in 1595, by Sir Walter Raleigh. The commencement of the 17th century saw the first British colonization on the West India islands, (the French and Dutch had been previously settling themselves on the main land at Guyana, and on several islands not occupied by the Spaniards,) and Barbadoes was occupied by the servants of Sir William Courteen, in 1624. (*Vide* chapter on Barbadoes.)

* The first English vessels seen in the West Indies, were two ships of war, under Sebastian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert, vice admiral of England, in 1517. They touched at the coast of Brazil, and then proceeded to Espanola and Porto Rico. The first trading English vessel that visited the islands, arrived at Porto Rico in 1519, being, as was said by the captain, sent by the King to ascertain the state of those islands, of which there was so much talk in Europe. The Spaniards at St. Domingo fired on her, and compelled her to return to Porto Rico. The Governor blamed them for not sinking her, and preventing any dissemination in England of a knowledge of the West Indies.

For the next half century, the progress of English and French settlement in the West Indies was extremely rapid. Various disputes arose as to first location; in some instances the subjects of each nation resided on the same island, partitioning it between them, or alternately expelling each other, (*vide* Montserrat chapter), and as war raged in Europe between the chief nations, it was carried on in the West with a bitterness and fury outvying that waged in the Old World. The Revolution and subsequent Restoration in England, helped to people the Western isles, (*vide* Jamaica chapter), and freedom of commercial adventure, and a bold enterprize in unison with the spirit of the age, increased the wealth and European inhabitants of the New World. The close of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth centuries, were marked by the most terrible European wars that ever devastated the earth; its effects extended to the colonies of the contending combatants;—for eighteen years England waged against France and Spain the most destructive hostilities on the transatlantic shores, and in 1810, Britain had captured every West India island belonging to any Power at war with her in Europe.

At the downfall, in 1815, of that extraordinary meteor, who seems to have been sent on earth to teach a lesson to arbitrary rulers, and afford an example of the instability of all human greatness, a restoration and repartitioning of the West India Islands took place, and they have since remained under the government of the English, French, Spaniards, Danes, and Dutch—as marked on the Map prefixed to this volume.

This concise notice of the settlement and acquisition of the islands, will be found sufficiently amplified under each possession; but before directing the reader to the several chapters

for the details referred to, I must briefly advert to the original and present population of the West Indies.

When Columbus first discovered the New World, he found the whole continent, and every island however small, densely peopled with a mild, and just, and generous race of men, (I do not allude to the Caribs scattered throughout the Archipelago, and preying, or rather feasting on their fellow-creatures), with skins of a copper or light bronze colour, long silky black hair, finely formed limbs, and pleasing features; in some instances warlike, and civilized to no mean extent; in others, living in luxurious idleness, under the enervating effects of a tropical clime. Such were the Indians, among whom history records some of the rarest instances of true heroism that man has ever been ennobled by.

Within a few short years after the discovery of the W. I. islands by the Spaniards, they had for the greatest part perished, —milions of them had been swept from the face of the earth like so many ants from an ant-hill,*—countless myriads sank into the grave by reason of the avarice of a mere handful of desperate, immoral, and murderous adventurers from the west! This is one of the extraordinary, the inscrutable, the awful dispensations of Providence, which it is forbidden to mortals to divine; the human mind dwindles with all its boasted wisdom

* Bensoni states, that of 2,000,000 Indians of the island of Hispaniola, (St. Domingo or Haiti), when discovered by Columbus, in 1492, not more than *one hundred and fifty* were alive in 1545! The Indians in Cuba, to avoid working in the mines, destroyed themselves in great numbers, notwithstanding all the efforts of the Spaniards to prevent them. The men, women, and children of a village containing fifty houses, have been found at daylight all hanging to the trees! In the Jamaica and Trinidad chapters, will be found illustrations of the cruel treatment of the Indians by the Spaniards, who absolutely fed their dogs on the flesh of their fellow-creatures, whom they shot or slew when their bodies were required.

into utter insignificance, when attempting to fathom the intentions of the Almighty; and I merely record the fact, in order to induce the contemplation of the most terrible event in the moral history of our species, and to show how weak, how powerless, how pitiful is man, either as an individual, or when congregated into society, in attempting to resist the decrees of Heaven.*

I pass from this melancholy truth to glance at another event scarcely less astounding, as regards its long and desolating continuance, I allude to the slave trade. When the Spaniards found how rapidly the aboriginal or Indian population of the West India isles perished under the system of forced labour, and beneath the tyranny of their rule, the expedient of introducing negro slaves from Africa was resorted to, and that infernal traffic in human blood and agony—doubly curst to the enslaver and to the enslaved—sprang into deadly and ferocious activity. The example of the Spaniards was soon followed by the Portuguese, Dutch, French and English;† companies for the horrid traffic were formed—

* Some retributive justice has already been dealt out to Spain by the Supreme Disposer of events. At one period the Spaniards possessed entirely the Floridas, Mexico, Darien, Terra Firma, Buenos Ayres, Paraguay, Chili, Peru, and California; they are now utterly expelled from every one of these possessions, their dominion execrated, and new and flourishing republics are rising on the ruin of their once valuable colonies.

† In the year, 1503, the Portuguese, who had settlements in Africa, had begun to send negro slaves into the Spanish settlements in America, and in 1511, Ferdinand the Fifth permitted them to be carried in greater numbers. Bartholomew de las Casas, the Bishop of Chiapa, actuated with a desire to save the lives of the Indians, promoted the traffic; but Cardinal Ximenes perceiving the injustice and probable ill effects of the scheme, discouraged it, and it experienced a partial interruption. Nevertheless, before the close of that century the African slave trade was carried on by natives of nearly all the maritime states of Europe, and in after times, *proh pudor!* by the United States of America.

monopolies granted, and Kings, Princes, and Nobles enriched their coffers with the price of human blood.

About *thirty millions* of our fellow creatures have been dragged from their native homes, shipped like cattle in chains to a distant land, worked like the beasts of the field, shot like dogs if they murmured forth a claim in behalf of humanity —and finally they have (with few exceptions) pined and perished under the cruelties, avarice, and brutality, of a handful of Europeans,—for of the thirty millions exported from Africa to the W. Indies* since the commencement of the sixteenth century, not half a million of the original slaves, or of their unmixed descendants, are now in existence!

I cannot in this instance, no more than in the former, penetrate the ways of God towards man,—of the Being who declareth that 'He that stealeth a man and selleth him, or if he be found in his hands, he shall surely be put to death.' *Exod.* xxi. 16. I have carefully studied the pages of W. India history which chronicle the deeds of upwards of 300 years, and

The first instance of an Englishman engaging in the traffic occurred in the year 1562, when Sir John Hawkins, in his first voyage to Africa and Hispaniola, carried slaves; and on his return deceived his mistress, Queen Elizabeth, in the report which he made of his proceedings. The Queen is stated to have expressed her concern, lest any of the Africans should be carried off without their free consent, and declared, 'that it would be detestable, and call down the vengeance of Heaven upon the undertakers.' Hall, the naval historian, has the following remarkable observations on this fact: 'Here began the horrid practice of forcing the Africans into slavery, an injustice and barbarity which, so sure as there is vengeance in Heaven for the worst of crimes, will some time be the destruction of all who allow or encourage it.'

The African Company, formed in the reign of Charles II., granted by letters patent, an exclusive right of trade to Queen Catherine, Mary (the Queen Dowager), the Duke of York, and others, forming a royal company, who carried on a traffic in slaves to the extent of £800,000 per annum.

* *Half a million* of negroes were imported into Jamaica from Africa, during the first half of the 18th century.

I find nothing but wars, usurpations, crimes, misery and vice:*—no green spot in the desert of human wretchedness on which the mind of a philanthropist would love to dwell;—all —all is one revolting scene of infamy, bloodshed, and unmitigated woe. *Slavery* (both Indian and Negro) that blighting upas, has been the curse of the West Indies; it has accompanied the white colonist, whether Spaniard, Frenchman, or Briton, in his progress, tainting, like a plague, every incipient association, and blasting the efforts of man, however originally well disposed by its demon-like influence over the natural virtues with which his Creator had endowed him—leaving all dark, and cold, and desolate within.

But now a glorious and happier era bursts upon the Western World, it diffuses the light of a new existence over the soul, *Liberty* is the spirit it has awakened—already her voice resounds along the beautifull hills and through the fertile vallies of the West, and is swept over the ocean to the uttermost bounds of the earth. Long may England wear the crown of glory that encircles her with an halo far brighter than that of all her conquests and battles; millions of the human race will bless her name for ages to come, and Afric's swarthy sons will pour forth prayers to the Giver of all good, for her honour and prosperity. She was the last nation in Europe to enter into that accursed traffic in human

* In 1730 the legislature of Bermuda passed an act, giving impunity to the murderers of slaves; if, however, *it could be proved* that a person had wilfully and maliciously killed a slave he was liable to be fined 10*l.* in current money, towards the support of the government! If the murderer was not the owner of the slain slave, he was, in addition, to pay the appraised value of the dead slave to the owner. What a picture of society does this Legislative Act in 1730 evince? In some of the islands emasculation was resorted to for the punishment of rebellious negroes, in preference to taking away life, because that was of value to the owner of the slave. What refined and demoniac cruelty!

beings,—to her eternal honour be it said, she was the first to relinquish it—to strike the manacle from the slave,—to bid the bond go free!

Tell me not that Christianity has no power over the soul when we witness the consummation of this splendid act, of which the history of paganism affords no parallel. Slavery we are told existed from the period when time was, and for four thousand years has continued to afflict the earth; under the benign influence of *our** Christian faith it ceases on *the first day of August, Eighteen Hundred and Thirty-four;*— it ceases throughout an Empire on which the sun never sets; and myriads 'redeemed, regenerated, disenthralled," walk forth in all the majesty of freedom.†

I stoop not to answer the impious assertion, that the image

* I say '*our*' without any feeling of bigotry, in reference to Roman Catholic countries which still tolerate the traffic in slaves.

† PROGRESS OF SLAVE ABOLITION. It must be grateful to a British mind to learn that, at an early period of our colonial history, negro slavery was reprobated by many public writers. Early in the sixteenth century, it was also discountenanced by Cardinal Ximenes, by Charles V. of Spain, by Pope Leo X., and by the Spanish Dominican Friars. Queen Elizabeth would also have discountenanced it, had the facts been known to her. Milton, and many others, have left on record their solemn protests against it. The sublime Poet of Paradise thus inveighed against this crying sin:

'O execrable son, so to aspire
Above his brethren, to himself assuming
Authority usurpt from God, not given;
He gave us only over beast, fish, fowl,
Dominion absolute; that right we hold
By his donation;—but man over men
He made not lord, such title to himself
Reserving, human left from human free.'

Also, Morgan Godwyn, in a little book entitled 'The Negro's and Indian's Advocate,' published in 1680; the celebrated Richard Baxter, in his 'Christian Directory;' Thomas Trygon, in his 'Negro's Complaint,' &c.; John Woolman, in 'Considerations on keeping Negroes;' Anthony

of the Creator, made in his likeness, and imbued with a portion of his divine spirit, was *born* to a state of slavery,—

Veluti pecora,—prona—obedientia ventri.

I heed not the physical care which may, and no doubt has, in many instances been bestowed on the mere animal; if the negro were not a rational being, endowed with a mind to reflect, and with a soul to be saved, I might rest satisfied with

Benezet, in his 'History of Guinea,' &c.; Southern, in his tragedy of 'Oronooko, 1696;' Dr. Primatt; Hutcheson, in his 'Moral Philosophy;' Foster, in his 'Discourses on Natural Religion and Social Virtue;' Sir Richard Steele, in his story of 'Inkle and Yarico;' Atkins, in his 'Voyage to Guinea, Brazil, and the West Indies;' Pope, in his 'Essay on Man;' Thomson, in his 'Seasons;' together with Richard Savage, Shenstone, Dyer, and other poets; also Wallis, Hughes, the celebrated Edmund Burke, Dr. Hayter, John Philmore, Malachi Postlethwaite, Thomas Jeffery, Sterne, and Warburton, in their prose writings. To these may be added, Rousseau and Baron Montesquieu. Granville Sharp, Esq. a gentleman of undying benevolence, took up the subject with intense energy in 1768; and by his noble exertions, the judges, after three days' deliberations, made the memorable decree, that the moment a slave touched the soil of England he was a *free man*. Since Mr. Sharp's time, further efforts have been made in the hallowed cause of slavery abolition; among others, by Thomas Day, author of 'Sandford and Merton,' and the 'Dying Negro,' published in 1773; Dr. Beattie, in his 'Essay on Truth;' Rev. John Wesley, who had been in America, and observed the condition of the slaves, in his 'Thoughts on Slavery;' Dr. Adam Smith, in his 'Theory of Moral Sentiments,' and 'Wealth of Nations;' Professor Miller, in his 'Origin of Ranks;' Dr. Robertson, in his 'Histories of America,' and of 'Charles V.;' the Abbé Raynal; Dr Paley, in his 'Moral Philosophy;' Dr. Porteus, Bishop of Chester, afterwards of London, who published a sermon on negro slavery in 1776, which he had preached before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and became, from that time, an active and powerful friend of the oppressed Africans. In 1784, Dr. Gregory, also in his 'Historical and Moral Essays,' gave a circumstantial detail of the slave trade, in terms calculated to excite abhorrence of it. In the same year, Gilbert Wakefield preached a sermon at Richmond, in Surrey, in which he censured the conduct of Great Britain towards the Africans; this sermon was also published. In the same year, the Rev. James Ramsay, vicar of Teston, in Kent, became

thinking of the careful attention bestowed on him as a beast of burthen; but he has far higher qualifications; he is equally

an able, zealous, and indefatigable patron of the African cause; in defence of which he published an Essay on the Treatment and Conversion of the African Slaves in the British Sugar Colonies, 1784; An Inquiry into the Effects of Abolition, 1784; A Reply to Personal Invectives and Objections, 1785; A Letter to James Tobin, Esq. 1787; Objections to the Abolition of the Slave Trade, with Answers; and An Examination of Harris's Scriptural Researches on the Licitness of the Slave Trade, in 1788; An Address on the proposed Bill for the Abolition of the Slave Trade, 1789. In 1785, a celebrated work of M. Necker, the French financier, made its appearance in the English language, and was found to contain some very forcible observations on the slave trade. In this year (1785), the first petition to Parliament, excepting one from the Society of Friends, was presented from the borough of Bridgewater, at the instance of the Rev. G. White and Mr. John Chubb, of that town. In 1788, Capt. J. S. Smith, of the royal navy, authorized the publication of a letter in vindication of the facts which had been stated by Mr. Ramsay, and disputed by the West India planters. In the same year, the poems of the celebrated William Cowper made their appearance, containing many strong passages against the slave trade and slavery. Thomas Clarkson, M. A. has been eminently distinguished by his writings against slavery, as well as by his indefatigable labours in the cause of abolition, from the first agitation of the subject. His most considerable work is his 'History of the Abolition of the Slave Trade,' in 2 vols. 8vo. published in 1808; it is a faithful and affecting narrative, which ought to hold a conspicuous place in every Englishman's library. His other works are as follow:—'An Essay on the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species, particularly the African, translated from a Latin Dissertation, which was honoured with the First Prize, in the University of Cambridge, for the year 1785;' 'An Essay on the Impolicy of the African Slave Trade, 1788;' with several smaller productions.

To the names already mentioned must be added those of Peers of Parliament, particularly Lords Grenville, Holland, and Teignmouth; also Sir Wm. Dolben, Sir P. Francis, Sir S. Romilly, Sir J. Mackintosh, Messrs. W. Wilberforce, W. Pitt, C. Fox, S. Whitbread, J. Stephen, C. Grant, H. Gurney, G. Harrison, Z. Macaulay, Alex. Falconbridge, H. Thornton, William Dylwyn, Sam. Bradburn, Capt. Marjoribanks, Captain Layman, James Montgomery, Joseph Woods, N. Vansittart, the Rev. R. Boucher Nichols (Dean of Middleham, in York-

entitled with his white brethren to every right and privilege of man,* and the alleged superior skill and intelligence of the

* To the argument founded on an alleged mental inferiority of the African race, my friend, Mr. Thomas Fisher, has thus furnished me with an admirably reply, to which, if space permitted, I could offer many additional illustrations, from observations made by myself in Africa. 'The following are a few instances of African negroes who have been mathematicians, physicians, divines, philosophers, linguists, poets, generals, and merchants, all eminent in their attainments, energetic in enterprise, and honourable in character. *Hannibal*, a colonel in the Russian artillery, and *Lislet*, of the isle of France (the latter of whom was named a corresponding member of the French Academy of Sciences, on account of his meteorological observations) prove the capacity of the negroes for the mathematical and physical sciences. *Fuller*, of Maryland, was an extraordinary example of quickness of reckoning. Being asked in a company, for the purpose of trying his powers, how many seconds a person had lived, who was seventy years and some months old? He gave the answer in a minute and a half. On reckoning it up after him, a different result was obtained; 'Have you not forgot the leap year?' asks the negro. This omission was supplied, and the number then agreed with his answer. *Jac. Eliza John Capitem*, who was bought by a slave-dealer, when eight years old, studied theology at Leyden, and published several sermons and poems. His '*Dissertatio de Servitute Libertati Christianæ non contraria*,' that is *Treatise of a Servitude (or Bondage) not contrary to Christian Liberty*, went through four editions very quickly. He was ordained in Amsterdam, and went to Elmina, on the Gold Coast, where it is believed he was either murdered, or consented to return to the practices and opinions of his countrymen. In 1734, *A. W. Arno*, an African from the coast of Guinea, took the degree of Doctor in Philosophy, at the University of Wittemberg. *Friedig*, in Vienna, an African negro, was an excellent performer, both on the violin and violincello; he was also a capital draftsman, and had made a very successful painting of himself. *Ignatius Sancho*, who was born on board a slave ship, on its passage from Guinea to the West Indies, and *Gustavus Vasa*, of the kingdom of Benin, doth distinguished themselves as literary characters, in this country. *Toussaint Louverture*, the negro general, and *Christophe*, the negroe Emperor of Hayti, and his admiral, acquitted themselves with sufficient energy in war, to achieve the liberties of their country, which is still governed by persons of African descent.'

shire), the Rev. John Newton, the Rev. J. Jamieson, the Rev. Abraham Booth, the Rev. T. Burgess (afterwards Bishop of St. David's), Messrs. Beaufoy, Josh. Hardcastle, W. Smith, T. F. Buxton, W. T. Money, H.

European over the negro should make the former a kind friend, instead of, as has formerly been too often the case, a cruel and

Brougham, with several others, who have advocated the cause of the oppressed Africans, either in pamphlets, or in speeches, which have been afterwards printed and circulated through the country. H. R. H. the Duke of Gloucester especially distinguished himself by becoming the patron and president both of the African Institution and of the Anti-Slavery Society.

The Society of Friends, or Quakers, warmly espoused the cause of humanity. The members of this community have long been, individually and collectively, both in principle and practice, opposed to the enslavement of the African race. So far back as the year 1671, it was adverted to in an address delivered by the celebrated George Fox to the inhabitants of Barbadoes. He was supported in his views and conduct by his colleague, William Edmundson. The first public censure on the traffic, passed by the society in its collective capacity, bears date in the year 1727, in which year it was resolved, 'That the importing of negroes from their native country and relations, by Friends, is not a commendable nor allowed practice, and is therefore censured by this meeting.' The same sentiment was more emphatically urged upon the attention of the members of this society in 1756, and has been since that time very frequently reiterated in an improved form, as the subject has been better understood, and the evils of slavery more distinctly perceived. In 1761, it was resolved to disown any member of the Society of Friends, who should have any concern in the traffic in slaves. In 1783, the society petitioned the English Parliament for the abolition of the slave trade, and it was the first public body which adopted that course. From that time till the present moment, its exertions for the suppression of the slave trade, and emancipation of the slaves, have been indefatigable. The Friends have, at a great expense, circulated information upon the subject; and it is now adverted to, as often as occasion presents, at the yearly meetings of the society.

Nor let me omit to state that the University of Cambridge frequently petitioned Parliament for the abolition of the slave trade, until that object was obtained; and it has since distinguished itself by petitioning the House of Commons for the abolition of slavery.

Among the earliest friends of the cause in Parliament were Sir Charles Middleton (afterwards Lord Barham), William Wilberforce, Esq. and the Right Honourable William Pitt, then Chancellor of the Exchequer. The latter, on the 9th of May, 1788, submitted a resolution to the House of Commons, 'That this House will, early in the next session of Parliament,

avaricious tyrant, prompted only to kindness by the despicable motives of self interest. Slavery, however, has now received

proceed to take into consideration the circumstances of the slave trade, complained of in the said petitions, and what may be fit to be done therein.' The House, after some debate, agreed to this motion. Several distinguished members of the House delivered their sentiments on the occasion, particularly the late Right Honourable C. J. Fox, the Right Honourable Edmund Burke, Mr. S. Whitbread, Sir William Dolben, Sir James Johnson, a planter, Mr. Bastard, Mr. L. Smith, Mr. Grigby, and Mr. Pelham, who were all favourable to the motion. Lord Penrhyn and Mr. Gascoyne, the members for Liverpool, admitted the evils of the trade although their constituents considered themselves as having a great interest in its continuance.

Sir William Dolben having expressed himself particularly anxious to apply an immediate remedy to the crying evils of the middle passage, a short regulating act was brought in, and passed the House of Commons. It also passed the House of Lords, after considerable opposition, especially from the then Lord Chancellor, Thurlow. Upon the whole, the cause of the oppressed Africans appeared to gain strength during the parliamentary session of the year 1788.

From this time till the passing of the first Abolition Act, in 1806, the subject did not rest in Parliament. Those who were friendly to the cause, and cherished a desire to see the slave trade abolished, continued indefatigable in their exertions to procure information, with a view to enlighten the members of both houses; (among those, Mr. Thomas Clarkson deserves honourable mention; his valuable life may be said to have been devoted to this holy cause.) And on the 12th of May, 1789, Mr. Wilberforce laid upon the table of the House of Commons twelve propositions, deduced from the report of the Committee of Privy Council, stating the number of slaves annually brought from the African shores; the means by which they were procured; their treatment; the average loss of British seamen and of slaves in the transit voyage, or, as it was more commonly called, *the middle passage;* also the average mortality of newly-imported slaves in the West Indies. These propositions Mr. Wilberforce prefaced by a brilliant address to the House, which obtained for him its plaudits, and he was supported by Mr. Burke, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, Mr. (afterwards Lord) Grenville, and other distinguished members; but the opponents of the cause, among whom were to be reckoned Aldermen Watson, Sawbridge, and Newnham, three of the members for the city of London, refused to be satisfied with the facts contained in the evidence then before them, and required further testimony. To this the House

its death blow, not merely in the British colonies, but throughout the civilized world ;* England has paid the penalty of her

* In 1807, the foreign slave trade was abolished throughout the United States, by the Act of Congress, a revolting internal slave trade still, however, exists in the Southern States, and nearly 2,000,000 of wretched beings are there in bondage. Mexico abolished the slave trade in 1824, and Buenos Ayres, Chili and Columbia since the treaty of Vienna. The Conventional Assembly of France, in 1794, abolished slavery, but the Act became void. Buonaparte, on his return from Elba in 1815, again decreed its abolition, but the Bourbons had neither the wisdom, humanity, or gratitude, to carry his decree into execution. England has paid nearly half a million of money to Spain and Portugal, for the suppression of the slave trade, but without a final effect. Now is the moment to enforce it, and to invite the co-operation of France and the United States for the abolition of internal slavery.

acceded, and the examination of witnesses commenced at the bar of the House. The question was, in consequence, deferred till the following session; but before the Parliament adjourned, Sir William Dolben obtained the renewal of his regulating act.

In 1790, the examination of witnesses against the slave trade proceeded in the House of Commons, but not without opposition.

In 1791, it was resumed and completed; and, on the 18th of April, a motion was made by Mr. Wilberforce on the evidence taken, for preventing all further importation of slaves from Africa, which, after a long and warm debate, was lost by a majority of 75 votes, the numbers being for it 88, against it 163.

On the 2nd of April, 1792, Mr. Wilberforce moved the House, that 'The trade carried on by British subjects for the purpose of obtaining slaves on the coast of Africa, ought to be abolished.' This proposition, after a long discussion, was agreed to by the House of Commons, with a limitation that the abolition should not take place till 1796; but when it was brought up to the House of Lords, the discussion of it was postponed till the following session, and their Lordships determined, in the interim, to receive further evidence.

Mr. Wilberforce, in his introductory speech in Parliament, this session, stated some dreadful instances of mortality, which had happened on board of slave ships during the middle passage, particularly that one ship, with a cargo of 602, had lost 155; another, with 450 slaves, 200; another, with 466 slaves, 73; and another, with 546 slaves, 158; and that out of

past wickedness, she must follow up her atonement by the performance of justice towards the colonists and their former

the survivors in the four ships, after the voyage was completed, 220 had died on shore in the West Indies. The discussions relative to the slave trade, were moreover conducted in this session with less command of temper than they had previously been on the part of the friends of that trade, who began to distinguish their opponents by the terms *fanatic, saint, speculatist,* or *abolitionist.*

Notwithstanding the discouragements in the House of Lords the question was not allowed to rest after the session of 1792. In 1793 a motion was made by Mr. Wilberforce in the House of Commons to renew the resolution of the preceding year, which motion was lost, as was another for the abolition of a foreign slave trade, then carried on by British capitalists upon British bottoms. The proceedings in the House of Lords were also remarkable this year for the opposition given in that house to the cause of the Africans: but some progress was made there in the hearing of evidence.

In the year 1794 the motion to abolish the foreign slave trade was renewed by Mr. Wilberforce in the House of Commons, where it was carried, but was afterwards negatived by the House of Lords, who, nevertheless, made some small progress in the hearing of evidence.

In February, 1795, Mr. Wilberforce moved in the House of Commons for leave to bring in a bill for the abolition of the slave trade. This motion had then become necessary, if, according to the former resolution of that House, already mentioned, the slave trade was to cease in 1796. The proposition was, nevertheless, rejected.

In the years 1796 and 1797 a temporary success attended the exertions of Mr. Wilberforce in the House of Commons, but it ended in disappointment; the enemies of abolition having, in the latter year, by a recommendation that the Colonial Assemblies would adopt measures of amelioration, parried the blow aimed at their system by the abolitionists. This scheme of *amelioration* was favourably received by Parliament, where it checked discussion, although it produced few good results in the West Indies.

In 1798 Mr. Wilberforce attempted to renew his former bill for the abolition of the slave trade within a limited time, but was again defeated, although by a small majority, in a thin House; the numbers being, for the question, 83; against it, 87. Mr. Wilberforce and the friends of the Africans, convinced that truth and justice were on their side, still persevered in their hallowed course, and in the following session, 1799, Mr. Wilberforce renewed his motion in the House of Commons for the abo-

bondsmen; the measures involving which will be found in the last chapter of this volume.* Ere, however, I close this brief

* I have only briefly adverted, under the head of St. Vincents, to the present system of West Indian Governments or Lieut.-Governorships, in my fifth Volume the West India Colonists will I trust find their views fully developed.

lition of the slave trade, but it was again lost. Another measure, proposed by Mr. Henry Thornton, for limiting the trade to certain districts of the African coast, had scarcely a better fate; the bill passed the House of Commons, but, after much discussion, was lost in the Lords. The years 1800, 1801, 1802, and 1803, were, therefore, allowed to pass without any effort being made in Parliament to abolish this odious traffic; but in the year 1804 Mr. Wilberforce revived the subject, and, after a very interesting debate, obtained, by a large majority of 124 votes against 49, leave to bring in a bill for the abolition of the slave trade. The bill was, nevertheless, when brought in, opposed in every stage of it, but it finally passed the House of Commons, and was sent up to the House of Lords. There, in consequence of the advanced state of the session, the consideration of it was postponed till the following year.

It was of course revived early in the session of 1805, and met, as usual, with decided friends and strongly excited adversaries. At length the question upon it was *lost* in the House of Commons, owing, as was believed, to the excessive confidence of its friends.

The good effects of these proceedings† became at last visible; an order by his Majesty in Council, 1805, gave the first check to the English slave trade, by interdicting the importation of slaves into British colonies, except in certain cases; in the succeeding year, 1806, the prohibition was confirmed by Act of Parliament, (46 Geo. III. cap, 52), which also prohibited a British traffic in slaves for the supply of foreign colonies. In June following, the House of Commons came to certain resolutions for the more effectual suppression of the African slave trade. On the 25th March, 1807, an Act (47 Geo. III. cap. 36) was passed, prohibiting the trade, under large penalties, and offering bounties to those who might be instrumental in detecting it. This was followed by the Act of 1811, (51 Geo. III. cap. 23) declaring the slave trade *felony*, and subjecting those concerned in it to condign punishment. By a more recent Act of Parliament, (4 Geo. IV. cap. 17) the traffic in slaves by British subjects was declared to be piracy. These proceedings were followed up by the Government at home, by the colonists abroad, and by Parlia-

† I am under obligations to the philanthropic Thos. Fisher, Esq. late of the India House, for many of these valuable chronological records.

introduction, let me entreat the reader to peruse the details under each W. I. possession, indicating the numerous resources of the colonies, and their manifold advantages to England, even in a mere commercial point of view.* To de-

* The example of St. Domingo has been frequently cited as an instance of the commercial and social ruin which will be the effect of slave emancipation in the British Colonies. Nothing can be more erroneous than such conclusions, in illustration of which I am happy in being able to furnish the following summary of events, drawn up by my friend, Mr. Fisher.

'The Island of St. Domingo, now the Republic of Hayti, was formerly the joint property of the French and Spaniards; who had acquired their rights in it, as such rights used to be acquired, by taking possession of the land, and stocking it with a slave population. But in August, 1791, the slaves on St, Domingo achieved their own freedom by that successful insurrection against their white masters, the guilt of which was most erroneously charged upon English Abolitionists.

It has been asserted that the blacks on St. Domingo, when they acquired liberty, in 1791, murdered nearly all the whites: and that their conduct upon that occasion was marked by great cruelty and atrocity. To this it is justly replied, that it was so reported by deputies sent by the whites to the French National Assembly; but to do justice to the negroes, it is necessary to advert briefly to some other circumstances in the history of the transactions referred to. When the French revolution, which decreed equality of rights to all citizens, had taken place, the free people of colour on St. Domingo, many of whom were persons of large property and liberal education, petitioned the National Assembly, that they might enjoy the same political privileges as the whites there. The subject of the petition was not discussed till the 8th of March, 1790, when the Assembly agreed upon a decree concerning it. The decree, however, was worded so ambiguously, that the two parties on St. Domingo, the whites and the people of colour, interpreted it each of them in its own favour. This difference

ment, in framing regulations for ameliorating the physical condition of the slaves, and providing for their moral and religious improvement. The crowning of all this was the final abolition of negro slavery throughout the British empire by the Act 3rd and 4th William IV. which comes into operation the 1st August 1834, and has already been unqualifiedly adopted without the apprenticeship clauses, by the Antiguans, (vide chapter xi.), £20,000,000 having been appropriated by Parliament for compensation to the planters, as regards any loss they may sustain from abolition. [For the projected allocation see chap. xvi.]

velope those resources a more generous mercantile code must be adopted; the interest of an enormous public debt,

of interpretation gave rise to animosities between them; and these animosities were augmented by political party spirit, according as they were royalists or partizans of the French revolution; so that disturbances took place, and blood was shed.

In the year 1791, the people of colour obtained from the Assembly in France another decree in explicit terms, which determined that they were entitled to all the rights of citizenship in all the French islands, provided they were born of free parents on both sides. The news of this decree had no sooner arrived at the Cape, than it produced an indignation almost amounting to phrenzy among the whites. They directly trampled under foot the national cockade; and were with difficulty prevented from seizing all the French merchant ships in the roads. After this the two parties armed against each other; camps were formed, and, it is to be deplored, that terrible massacres and conflagrations followed; the reports of which, when brought to the mother country, were so terrible, that the Assembly in the same year *abolished the decree in favour of the free people of colour.*

When the news of this last act reached St. Domingo, it occasioned as much irritation among the people of colour as the news of the passing of it had produced among the whites; and hostilities were renewed between them, so that new battles, massacres, and burnings took place, which compelled the Conventional Assembly to retrace their steps. They sent out commissioners; who, after several attempts at pacification, emancipated such blacks as were willing to range themselves under the banners of the Republic; and in 1794, the National Convention emancipated the whole remaining slave population, who immediately betook themselves to courses of industry. In these transactions it must be evident, that the slaves in the first instance were the mere engines employed by their owners, by whom they were hurried on to excesses. If afterwards they found a cause properly their own, and in any instance prosecuted it with cruelty, it should be recollected that they had not been educated in the principles of civilized society. Their whole experience in the colonies had been limited to the contemplation of but one motive for human action, and that motive was fear. They had witnessed great excesses of cruelty practised by white men upon blacks; and when the ebullitions of their own rage and resentment, for injuries long endured, had burst all the restraints of law, and they knew that the foe they had raised up would, if triumphant, resort to still more execrable cruelties than he had formerly practised, what wonder that in the use of power they should be implacably cruel, thus following the example of their white oppressors,

(£28,000,000 yearly) as well as a portion of the current expenses of the nation, must be levied on some other sources, instead of causing them to fall so heavily as they now do on our colonial produce. Again, I repeat, we must bring the trade of our transmarine possessions as nearly as possible to that of a coasting traffic. Why should an Englishman settling in any part of the empire be burthened with enormous fiscal duties on the produce of his skill and industry, for the benefit of some more favoured portion of his fellow subjects? In the hope, therefore, that the present era of social liberty is but the prelude to a state of commercial freedom, when the rich and varied products of our colonies will be unsubjected to heavy fiscal restrictions and legislative enactments, I close my labours on the Second

who certainly were not less so? The very worst part of the conduct of the blacks on St. Domingo, in their struggle for their liberties, is many shades less dark and diabolical than that of the cool calculating slave trader, who navigates his vessel, freighted with fetters, manacles, thumb-screws, and scourges, to the shores of an unoffending people, and, after drawing numbers of them into his toils by employing the most satanic arts, sacrifices the lives of nearly half of his cargo of human beings that he may secure the others in a distant region, in a state of irremediable bondage. The outrages of men struggling to regain their lost liberties have too much of virtue in them to admit of any comparison with such transactions as those of the slave trader.

The inhabitants of St. Domingo have since, as might naturally be expected, experienced some revolutionary struggles; but although they are in the very midst of slave colonies belonging to several European nations, they are at this moment an independent negro state, under a republican government, over which a native mulatto chief presides, and are daily increasing in population (it is now 1,000,000, having doubled itself in 25 years) and improving in power, in intellectual cultivation, and all the arts of civilization. Boyer, the President of the Republic of Hayti, has thrice, viz. in 1814, 1816, and 1823, offered to compensate the former proprietors for their losses; but France wished to stipulate for sovereignty, and to this the Haytians of course would not consent. One million francs have been presented to Lafitte by the St. Domingans, for the losses he may have sustained by his projected Haytian loan.

Volume of the History of those Possessions, which I cannot help believing have been attached by Almighty Providence to Britain, for the purpose of working out more than has yet been done,—the salvation and happiness of the human race.

*** The enlightened and ingenuous reader, who does me the honour to accompany me through the unavoidably monotonous details necessary to a due understanding of the first connected view of the British Colonies that has ever been laid before the public, is requested to suspend a definitive opinion on my mercantile and colonial policy, until the appearance of the *fifth* volume, in which will be developed the principles of ancient and modern colonization, and an exposition of the future line of conduct and government which England must inevitable pursue amidst the extraordinary events which surround and influence her *small domestic*, and *vast transmarine* Empire.

For the generous manner in which so many Editors of the public Press have unbiassedly cheered me on to complete an undertaking the mere preparation for which has cost me years of peril and privation abroad and at home, I return my sincere thanks; few can imagine the difficulties which I have had to surmount in proceeding even thus far; indeed notwithstanding the possession of no ordinary degree of energy, I should have sunk beneath the pressure of unremitted daily and midnight toil, had I not been supported by the consciousness that my country will reap some benefit from my sacrifices, and that I owe a duty to society, to extend by every possible exertion, social and commercial freedom, and thus tend to lessen the number of wretched and indigent throughout the world.

With reference to the *utility* of statistical tables of population, trade, and finance, or to the value of geological descriptions, and geographical delineations of our colonies, it may be sufficient to observe, that I mistake the spirit of the mercantile age in which I live, if correct facts and practical conclusions are not more desired by the mass of well informed society, than theoretical views and lengthened abstract disquisitions, which lead to—*Nothing*. It may have suited the genius of a bygone generation,—or be adapted to the taste of a few members of the present, to busy themselves in such procedures as extracting sun-beams from cucumbers, forgetful that even if successful, the question of *cui bono?* is with less difficulty answered. For me (and I think I have merely stamped on my mind the impress which gives form and pressure to the progress of civilization and Christianity,) it is enough to know that the great mass of the race of human beings in which my destiny is cast, are poor, ignorant, and wretched; and that extended commerce relieves want—that competence annihilates ignorance—and that knowledge is virtue, and power, and happiness.

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HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

(VOL. II.—POSSESSIONS IN THE WEST INDIES.)*

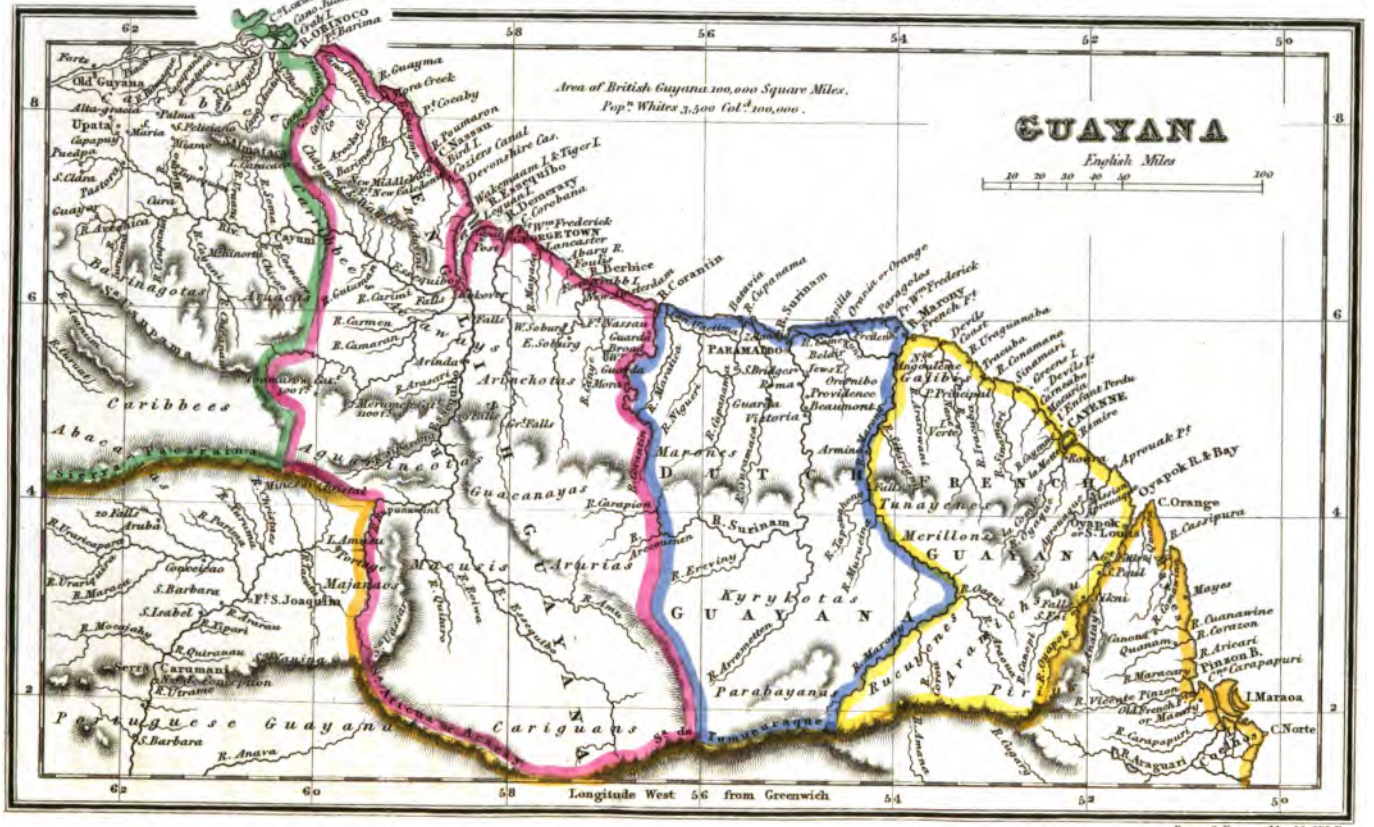
Possessions.	Insular or Continental.	Locality.		Area in Square Miles.	Population.		Colonial Finances. †		General Commerce.		British Shipping.		Property.		Capital City or Chief Town.	Ceded, Conquered or Colonized.	Date of Acquisition.
		Lat. N.	Long. W.		White	Coloured.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Imports.	Exports.	Inwards from Great Britain.	Outwards to Great Britain.	Yearly Created.	Moveable and Immoveable.			
							£	£	£	£	Tons.	Tons.	£	£			
Guyana.....	Cont.	6 *a* 8	56 *a* 60	100,000	3,500	100,000	60,000	70,000	1,000,000	3,000,000	60,000	72,000	3,789,166	24,020,000	George Town	Conquered	1803
Jamaica.....	Insul.	17 *a* 18	76 *a* 78	6,400	35,000	450,000	300,000	300,000	3,000,000	4,000,000	76,000	88,000	8,581,283	44,900,000	Spanish Town	Ditto	1655
Trinidad.....	Ditto	9 *a* 10	60 *a* 61	2,400	3,320	39,000	35,000	35,000	300,000	250,000	21,600	18,000	1,332,100	7,710,000	Port of Spain	Ditto	1797
Tobago.....	Ditto	11.16	60.30	187	450	14,000	10,000	9,000	117,000	160,000	7,200	7,400	500,000	1,900,000	Scarborough	Ceded & do.	1763
Grenada.....	Ditto	12.20	61.30	125	800	27,000	13,000	13,300	80,000	220,000	11,400	10,100	1,000,000	4,800,000	S. George's...	Ditto	1783
St. Vincent's...	Ditto	13.10	60.37	130	1,300	25,000	15,000	14,000	100,000	330,000	10,300	12,700	1,200,000	6,000,000	Kingston.....	Ditto	1783
Barbadoes.....	Ditto	13. 5	59.41	150	14,000	90,000	17,000	18,000	370,000	776,000	19,000	20,000	2,000,000	15,000,000	Bridge-town	Colonized	1625
St. Lucia.....	Ditto	13.50	60.58	58	1,070	17,000	10,000	10,000	65,000	83,000	4,000	4,500	300,000	1,200,000	Castries.....	Conquered	1803
Dominica.....	Ditto	15.25	61.15	275	840	20,000	7,000	6,000	82,000	120,000	3,400	4,000	350,000	1,500,000	Roseau.....	Do. & Ceded	1783
Montserrat.....	Ditto	16.47	62.13	47	320	7,000	2,500	2,500	18,000	30,000	1,000	1,200	100,000	1,000,000	Plymouth....	Do. & Colon.	1632
Antigua.....	Ditto	17. 3	62. 7	108	2,000	33,000	16,000	16,000	150,000	300,000			800,000	5,000,000	St. John's....	Ditto	1632
St. Christopher's	Ditto	17.18	62.40	68	1,600	21,000	8,000	8,000	60,000	150,000	7,400	6,600	600,000	3,000,000	Basseterre....	Ditto	1623
Nevis.....	Ditto	17.14	62. 3	20	700	10,000	3,000	3,600	29,000	80,000			180,000	1,000,000	Charlestown	Ditto	1628
Anguilla.....	Ditto	18. 0	64. 0	‡.....	360	3,000							20,000	160,000	Anguilla.....	Colonized	1650
Virgin Isles....	Ditto	18.20	64.39		500	7,000	1,000	1,200	30,000	10,000	3,000	2,500	60,000	500,000	Tortola.....	Ditto	1666
Bahamas.....	Ditto	21 *a* 27	71 *a* 79	4,400	4,150	12,000	19,000	20,000	91,400	76,500	2,000	2,000	300,000	2,000,000	Nassau.....	Ditto	1629
Bermudas.....	Ditto	32.20	64.50	22	4,000	4,800	10,000	10,000	80,000	27,000	2,300	500	160,000	1,000,000	St. George...	Ditto	1611
Honduras.....	Cont.	17 *a* 19	88 *a* 90	62,750	330	4,800	15,000	15,000	234,000	320,000	10,000	11,000	700,000	6,000,000	Belize.....	Ditto	1650
		Totals....		177,140	74,240	884,600	541,500	551,600	5,806,400	9,932,500	238,600	260,500	21,972,549	126,690,000			

* Our Colonial Statistics are so vague and so imperfect that it is extremely difficult to approximate to truth; this Table, as also a similar one in the First Volume, is given for the purpose of affording a Comparative View of the Colonies and to demonstrate their importance in the aggregate.

† I do not include the charges incurred by England for troops; that is an evil which I have shewn may be remedied.

‡ No returns to Government.

For Montgomery Martin's History of the British Colonies Vol.2, Possessions in the West Indies



HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

POSSESSIONS IN THE WEST INDIES.

CHAPTER I.

BRITISH GUYANA—LOCALITY, HISTORY, PHYSICAL ASPECT, RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS, CLIMATE, GEOLOGY, MINERAL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS—POPULATION—NATURAL PRODUCTIONS—COMMERCE, GOVERNMENT, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE—RELIGION, EDUCATION AND THE PRESS—VALUE OF PROPERTY, ETC.

LOCALITY.—British Guyana, embracing the settlements on the rivers Essequibo, Demerara and Berbice, and covering an area of nearly 100,000 square miles,* extends about 200 miles from E. to W. along that alluvial portion of the South American Continent termed the 'Main,' which is formed by the deltas of the mighty rivers Amazon and Orinoco, having for its boundaries on the East the mouth of the river Courantyn, in Lat. 6.10 N. Long. 56.2.5 W.; on the West the boundaries of Colombia, between the Baryma and Pomeroon rivers,† about Lat. 8 N. Long. 60 W., and to the southward or inland, about 100 leagues, or perhaps to a mountain range

* Under the Demerara and Essequibo districts, 70,000 square miles; and within the Berbice territory, 25,000 ditto.

† Some consider the river Baryma in Lat. 8.35 N., Long. 60.10 W. the Western boundary; others the Pomeroon river, Lat. 7.40 N. Long. 58.50 W.; but the limits have never yet been completely settled.

(the Cordilleras) extending on the eastward to within two degrees of the Equator.*

General History.—A detail of the early history of this part of the South American Continent would be out of place in a work whose chief object is to enable the British public to form a correct view of the position, magnitude and importance of our Colonies; the leading points of the European settlement and English acquisition will therefore suffice. So early as 1580 the Dutch attempted to form small settlements along this coast on the banks of the Amazon, Orinoco and Pomeroon rivers (for trading purposes), on the latter named river they had a factory called *Nieuw Zealand*, and in 1581 the States-General of Holland privileged certain individuals to trade to the coast. These proceedings were viewed with a jealous eye by the Spaniards, who, aided by the Indians, drove the Zealanders from their station; the persevering character of the Dutch would not allow a first check to daunt their efforts, their commander Joost Van Den Hoog succeeded in gaining possession of a small island at the junction of the Mazerooni and Cayuni, called Kykoveral, and in 1602 Jan Van Peere, a native of Flushing, attempted to open a trade with the Indians of the Orinoco, but was defeated by

* The territories on this coast are called, 1st, Spanish; 2nd, British; 3rd, French; and 4th, Portuguese—*Guyana*. The 1st lying on both sides of the Orinoco, and extending S. and S. W. to the Rio Negro, and the Portuguese settlements, is bounded on the E. by the river Baryma in 8.50 N. Lat., 60.5 W. Long.; 2nd, British (formerly Dutch) Guyana described in the text; and 3rd, French Guyana (called Cayenne from the name of the island on which the chief town stands) extends from the boundary of British Guyana on the W. to Vincent Pincon's bay, near Cape North, in Lat. 2.35 N., Long. 51 W.; (this bay the Portuguese have confounded with the bay of the great river Oyapoko, which joins the sea in N. Lat. 4.35 W., Long. 51.20) and 4th, Portuguese Guyana, it is alleged, extends from Cape North between the parallel of 1 and 2.25 N. Lat. to the junction of the great river Amazon with the Rio Negro or black river, thus cutting off the southern parts of French, British and Spanish Guyana, from 51 to nearly 65 W. Long. 800 miles, and having for its S. and S. W. boundary the great river Amazon.

the Spaniards; the Zealanders, however, about this time, effected a settlement on the banks of the Essequibo, in 1613 they reported their colony to be in a flourishing condition, and in 1621, the Dutch Government undertook to supply the colonists with negro slaves from Africa; for the prosecuting of which trade a company was formed and a monopoly granted. Jan Van Peere, with his companions, when driven by the Spaniards from the Orinoco, commenced colonizing on the banks of the Berbice river, and cleared a large extent of territory between the rivers of Berbice and Courantyne. In 1657, the Zealanders colonized on the river Poomeroon and the creek Morocco, and erected thereon the towns of New Zealand and New Middleburgh. Essequibo, in 1665, was taken by the English, and afterwards plundered by the French; but both were expelled from the Dutch settlements, in the following year, by an expedition from Holland.* In 1712, the French took possession of Berbice by force from the Dutch proprietors; but, in 1714, returned it to its former owners, on the payment of a sum of money. At this period, the States General contracted for the supply of negroes to the colony, in the proportion of two-thirds male, and one-third female, at the rate of £250 each.

In 1720 the proprietors of Berbice not having a capital equal to the cultivation of which the colony was capable, raised a fund of 3,200,000 florins, divided into 1,600 shares of 2,000 each, to be employed solely in cultivating sugar, cocoa, and indigo; 50 per cent. was to be repaid in 1724, the remainder when required by the Directors, who consisted of

* It is said that, in 1662, after its settlement, the *whole coast* was ceded by Charles II. to Lord Willoughby, the then Governor of Barbadoes, who named the principal river wherein Paramaribo is situate, and, in fact, the whole colony, *Surry*ham (in honour of the Earl of Surry, the term being afterwards changed into *Surinam*), and that the colony was purchased from the heirs of Lord Willoughby by the British Crown, and exchanged with the Dutch Government for New Holland, in N. America (now New York). In 1669, the whole of Dutch Guyana was transferred from certain gentlemen in Amsterdam, Flushing, &c., who claimed to be proprietors, to the Dutch West India Company.

seven Proprietors (afterwards increased to nine), of 20,000 florins each, residing at Amsterdam: the former Proprietors of Berbice were also to be paid 800,000 florins, or allowed to purchase 400 shares. From this period the Colonies rapidly flourished and extended; coffee cultivation was introduced from Surinam, and a fort built at the junction of the Canje.*

In 1741 the planters at Essequibo, thinking the low lands near the sea more productive than the upper country over which they had previously settled, began emigrating to the former; and, in 1745, the Directors of the Chamber of Zealand gave permission to form plantations on the uninhabited coast of the river Demerara. A most disastrous negro insurrection took place in Berbice in 1763, from which the colony was not relieved until after eleven months desolation, and only then by the arrival of a strong squadron from Holland. Courts of policy and of civil and criminal justice were established for Demerara 1773, on an island named Borsden, about twenty miles up the river; but, the following year, the seat of Government was removed from thence to the east point of the mouth of the river, and named Stabroek, now George Town. In 1781, the colonies on the Essequibo and Demerara were placed under the protection of Great Britain by a squadron of Admiral Lord Rodney's fleet; but, in 1783, the French took temporary possession of the whole Dutch settlements, which, in 1796, surrendered to the British forces under the orders of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and commanded by Major General White. These settlements were, however, restored to the Dutch by the treaty of Amiens, in 1802, but again taken possession of by England on the breaking out of the war in 1803; since which period they have belonged to Great Britain. In 1812, all distinctions

* A passage from the river Amazon to the Essequibo was discovered, in 1735, by a Portuguese named Silva de Rosa, who had been private secretary to the Viceroy of Brazil; but, having killed a nobleman in a duel, he fled with some negroes in a canoe along the Rio Branca, Tacusa, Moan, and across the lake Amuca; thence entering the Rippanouny, and finally reaching Essequibo.

between the colonies of Essequibo and Demerara, whether of jurisdiction or otherwise, were abolished—the office of commander of Essequibo was done away with, the courts of civil and criminal justice of both colonies united at Demerara, and the judicial establishment at Fort Island discontinued; the name of the capital was also changed from Stabroek to George Town, and a board of police appointed for its internal management, the financial representations of Demerara and Essequibo combined with the College of Kiezers, and the right of suffrage extended to all persons paying income tax on 10,000 florins, or possessing twenty-five slaves. In 1807 the slave-trade was only finally abolished. By an additional article to a convention signed at London, 13th Aug. 1814, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice were finally ceded to Great Britain, with the condition that the Dutch proprietors had liberty, under certain regulations, to trade with Holland. The year 1818 witnessed the first introduction of trial by jury and the commission of *oyer and terminer*. In 1820, after much angry dispute relative to the enormous and illegal exactions of fees, a tariff of the same was fixed, and a petition to the Crown, praying for an enquiry into judicial abuses, agreed to, which enquiry was ordered. A serious insurrection of the slaves took place on the east coast of the Demerara river, in 1823, which was finally suppressed, and Mr. Smith, a Missionary of the London Society, condemned to death for inciting the negroes to rebellion—a sentence which was commuted at home to total banishment from the West Indies: Mr. Smith died in prison pending the sentence. In 1831, the colonies of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice were united into one government, and called British Guyana; the forms of the courts altered; civil causes to be heard before a chief and two puisne judges, in criminal causes, three assessors to be associated with the judges, and a majority of the whole required for condemnation; and the College of Kiezers and financial representatives, which had been united in 1812, were separated.—[Vide Government section.]

Physical Aspect. With the exception of ranges of sand-

hills, about twenty miles inland, and rarely more than forty or fifty feet above the level of the rivers and creeks,* the whole country inhabited by the Europeans is perfectly flat and alluvial, bearing a striking resemblance to Holland and Flanders, and, like those countries, drained by canals and sluices, with lofty dikes or mounds of mud, of considerable thickness, embanking each estate, and kept, together with the numerous bridges, in repair by the proprietors of the land in which they are situate.

As the country is ascended from eighty to one hundred miles inland, its fine savannahs are interrupted by, in some places, a beautiful hill and dale territory, varied with high and frequently rocky land—presenting a strong contrast to the rather monotonous scenery which a dead flat possesses, and which those who have visited Bengal and the delta of the Ganges, as contrasted with the upper provinces, will readily understand. Further southward, at the Coomarow Fall (vide river Essequibo), the granitic table-land belonging to the Cordillera rises to the height of six thousand feet above the level of the sea, at three hundred miles distant from the ocean.

The whole face of the coast of Guyana, from the Maranon to the Orinoco, is low, and generally bordered with a sandy flat, extending far out to seaward;—moreover the various large rivers with which it is intersected, continually bring down from the upper country vast quantities of alluvial matter, which, on depositing, form a margin of low ground, covered with mangrove bushes, appearing an inaccessible barrier at low water, but completely hidden at full tide. About five hundred paces within these mangroves, the low and level savannahs commence, extending irregularly inland, and every where intersected by rivers, rivulets, and creeks, with a dense, luxuriant, and magnificent vegetation. The plantations are regularly ranged on either side of the great rivers, or along

* Some of the sand hills on the west bank of the Demerara river are from one hundred to one hundred and fifty feet high, and nearly perpendicular.

the coast, in allotments of from five hundred to one thousand acres each.* The dwelling-houses, elevated on piles of timber, are generally close to the river's brink, with a wharf, or landing place, opposite for the convenience of shipping produce;—buildings of different descriptions are scattered about in every direction; sugar mills driven by wind, or by steam†; and on the coffee plantations, *logies*, or barns, three stories high, form a picturesque prospect, in addition to the numerous boats sailing up and down the rivers and creeks; while the insulated, well-tilled plantations, excellent brick-made and avenued roads, with numerous white bridges, afford a most pleasing indication of an industrious and intelligent community. The physical aspect of the colony may be further judged of by its

RIVERS.

The three great rivers within British Guyana are the Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, with their numerous tributaries; to begin with the most westerly, the ESSEQUIBO, situate 9 miles west of the Demerara river, at its embouchure from one side of the main land to the other is from 15 to 20 miles wide, and covered with many beautiful, low, and bushy islands, with shoals or sandy spits, extending from the north parts of the islets a considerable distance to seaward, and dividing the navigation into four separate channels. The most eastern island is termed *Leguan*, (containing 24 sugar estates), between which and the east side of the river is the *ship channel*, a wide passage but much encumbered with shoals: to the westward is a long and narrow island, called Wakenaam, containing 18 sugar estates, its dimensions are about 9 miles long and 3 broad; to the north west of the

* The Dutch West India Company parcelled the allotments out into five hundred acre conditional grants, with an additional five hundred acres behind the first allotment, when two-thirds of the latter were cultivated. Sales and divisions of patrimony have caused some changes in the area of the estates.

† There are two hundred and sixteen sugar estates in the colony; each has a steam-engine, many two.

latter and near the west shores is a small islet, termed *Tiger Island*, (containing 3 sugar estates). A succession of other islands* (one termed *Fort Island* about 15 miles from the mouth), extend to the southward and further up the river, from 25 to 30 miles, between all of which there are channels, but from the extensive deposits of mud, it is difficult to state the soundings for any length of time, the depth of water on the whole coast being continually undergoing a change, according to the heaviness of the rains or the duration of the winds that blow on the shore. From *Fort Island* the Essequibo runs nearly south for about 30 miles, where it is joined by the large river Cayuni which runs nearly S. W., afterwards north west through the province of Colombian Guyana, where it is supposed to join some of the interior branches of the Orinoco; a little further, or inland, the Essequibo is joined by the Mazarooni river, which makes a considerable sweep to the north west and then returns, so as to form a large peninsula, enclosing lofty mountains and considerable creeks or rivulets; indeed for 80 miles inland the breadth of the Mazaroony is so great, and the wooded islands and creeks so numerous, that it has more resemblance to a lake than a river, and the influence of the tides is felt, at least in the Essequibo, 100 miles from the ocean. The enterprizing Mr. Hillhouse, an engineer officer at Demerara, has recently explored the Mazarooni river, and from his manuscript journal, as kindly lent me, by the intelligent and active secretary of the Royal Geographical Society, I glean the following description of the river and the adjacent country.

The distinguishing island feature of the Mazarooni river commences at Caria island;† from this point for nearly 100 miles, an innumerable string of islands divide the river into from five to ten different channels, in which space the two banks of the river are scarcely once visible together, and even

* Hog Island, the largest in the Essequibo; its South end extends nearly to Fort Island.

† Caria was once a Dutch fort, and several plantations then existed on each bank, but now only to be traced by a few cocoa trees.

one bank but seldom, the river continuing from three to four miles broad throughout the Archipelago. The rapids commence between these islands,* and at the fourth rapid *(Warimambo)* is a large open space in the centre of the river, which in the rains has the appearance of a vast lake, and in the dry season that of a rugged rocky plain.

Some of the falls are most difficult of ascent, the Caboory, for instance, is full thirty feet high, in four different ledges, and requiring an hour's hard labour to get over a space of about one hundred yards. On emerging from the almost interminable confusion of islands, creeks, and falls, and with the open and placid Mazarooni river like a great inland lake running S. and W. the eye of the low-lander is agreeably astonished with a sight of '*Arthur's Tables*' (the first visible point of the mountains of Merumah or St. George, the great central chain of Guyana), at an apparent distance of about sixty miles, and which would seem by a comparison with other parts of the chain to be six thousand feet above the level of the sea. At the thirty-fourth and last fall, named *Teboco*, (and the extreme southern limit

* The manner in which the falls are ascended is thus described by Mr. Hillhouse.—'The rapids do not run in one sheet over a level ledge, but force themselves through a number of fissures,—large intermediate blocks of granite dividing the different shoots of the fall. At the base of these blocks is an eddy, into which the boat is forced, and becomes stationary, having no current either way. The crew then spring on the rock, and wade as far as they can find footing; by means of a long stout rope they then pull the canoe, or corial, into one of the shoots of the fall, where there is water enough to float her, and by main strength haul her up the ascent. They then take her out of the current, and lay her stern against the upper part of the rock, from the lower part of which they have thus ascended; and with her head right up the stream, at a given signal they all spring in, and, pulling with their whole might, endeavour to cross diagonally the different currents till they get into another eddy. This is the time of the greatest danger: if not active in seizing their paddles, the head of the canoe is taken by the current, and she drifts broadside down the fall and upsets. If not strong-handed also, she cannot stem the currents above, and goes down the fall stern foremost; the currents, at most of the rapids, run at the rate of ten or twelve miles an hour; and thus frequently many hours are consumed in gaining a few hundred yards.'

of Mr. Hillhouse's expedition), a lofty mountain was observed due S., with a conical peak at the N. extremity, like the crater of a volcano, equal in height to Arthur's Table, and named by the voyagers '*Raleigh's Peak*;' the Caranang creek appeared to lead towards it, but was not explored. At the fall of Teboco the river narrows to one-third of its usual breadth, but widens again immediately after, and at Aramayka the cliffs of Marybyacrew, became visible about one thousand feet high, with perpendicular northern faces, with a remarkable detached peaked rock on the W. face of the cliffs called the *Caribisce*, the legend of whose nation states it to be a man turned into stone for presumptuously daring to scale the cliffs. At the point of Teboco the granite, for the first time, assumes a regular formation, and as the river is ascended is continued to be found in strata, at an angle of about five degrees above the horizon, its apex being nearly northward: it forms the base of all the cliffs, to a height of six hundred to one thousand feet, when a perpendicular and cubical formation of quartz is the general superstructure to one thousand five hundred feet higher. From a little above Aramayka the chain of Merumah or St. George is seen bounding the horizon, stretching to the N. where it appears highest, and terminates abruptly, in perpendicular faces, like the other branches of the chain. Near the extremity in a clear day, a white curved line is seen extending from the summit to the base of the chain, this is the Merumah creek forcing its way from the table land, a height of one thousand two hundred feet, to the valley of the Mazaroony.

At the fall of Macrebah navigation ceases; the creek winds about in the most opposite directions, and at every turn a large bold spit of white sand projects. The water though perfectly transparent, is of a deep chocolate colour, and the sands are reflected in it of a bright claret or purple—the dark and still creek is fringed with a dense and gloomy foliage; while journeying in the midst of this gloomy valley, a perpendicular cliff of one thousand five hundred feet high is suddenly seen, and though distant it appears as if it could be touched;—

around are detached masses of rocks, which seem abruptly torn from the gigantic walls of nature, and every two or three hours an immense block of granite must be passed in a deep channel, barely wide enough for the Corial (canoe), then suddenly the channel widens into a shallow claret-coloured lake one hundred and fifty yards broad, but scarcely deep enough for the craft to swim in, and at last a capacious bason is entered, surrounded by a bold extensive sand clay, as white as chalk, while the waters are as black as ink, without any perceptible current, though a fall of water is heard, and there is a foam like yeast on the surface, which remains the whole day without any visible alteration, save when a gust of wind coming down the fall, scatters the foam in flakes exactly resembling snow. At a distance a broken white line (the fall of Macrebah) of one hundred feet high is seen struggling through a cluster of granite rocks, at the base of two quartz cliffs of mixed character.

Half way up the Macrebah fall, a small spring of clear, transparent, and slightly effervescent water, exists without the least ferruginous tincture, and issuing from a superior quartz formation, indicating perhaps that the extraordinary purple tinge of the waters of the creek is owing to a decomposition of granitic iron in combination with a solution of astringent vegetable matter. The distance of Carulang creek (in which the Macrebah fall is situate) from the coast is estimated at four hundred miles, (including the sinuosities of the river) and the height above the sea, (roughly calculated by the boiling of water at two hundred and eight Farenheit) above three thousand feet. A cataract above Macrebah named Coomarow is six hundred feet high, and exceedingly difficult of access, the greater part of the rise being an angle of forty-five, with an abrupt descent and only ladders of roots. On the crest of the fall there is not more than two feet of water in dry weather, but in the rains the rise is above ten feet, when the surrounding country is totally submerged. The table land above the Coomarow fall is evidently the extreme height of the horizontal granite formation, the laminæ being here perfectly

horizontal, and that of the bed of the creek in large plates or layers, of from one to three inches thick: the creek itself was one hundred yards broad and two feet deep, but completely choked with a sort of long grass, having stems as thick as a man's arm, dividing at top into a multiplicity of long threads like the tails of horses, and completely covering the surface of the water.

The descent of the falls is accomplished with great rapidity, in less than one day the ascent of three may be got over—eighty or ninety miles being an easy day's journey. The middle channels are now chosen, where the current is most rapid and the greatest body of water rushing to the coast; it requires four stout hands, two a-head and two a-stern, to give steerage way whilst shooting many crooked passages,—that of Itackeck is a zig-zag of four turns, where not a few accidents have occurred to the small craft of the Indians.

We know nothing further of the Mazaroony region, and even this knowledge is imperfect, owing to Mr. Hillhouse's evident deficiency of astronomical instruments. The Essequibo and Cayuniare are almost unexplored.

Judging from Mr. Hillhouse's observations, the El-Dorado of the unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh (to which the fall of Teboco seems to be the key,) is not a very fertile country; Dr. Hancock differs from Mr. H. and until the land be better explored it would be difficult to arrive at a correct judgment. We may now proceed briefly to glance at the—

Demarara River—situate to the SE. of the Essequibo, sixteen miles from Leguan island, and about fifty-seven miles westward of the bar of the Berbice river in 6. 40 N. Lat. and 57.45 W. Long. nearly three miles broad at its mouth, and becoming narrower as it is ascended. The capital of British Guyana, in Lat. 6.47 N. Long. 58.1 W. formerly called Stabroek, now called George Town,* is situate amidst a dense

* If it were not for the tropical scenery around George Town it might be mistaken for a Dutch city; except close to the river the houses, raised on supports to prevent damps, are widely scattered, built of wood, after the Dutch style with *a stoup*, coloured according to the fashion of the

foliage, on its E. or right bank, about one mile and a half from a small fortification, built of mud and fascines, with two low platforms, and termed Fort William Frederick. The river is navigable by ships of burthen for one hundred miles up, as far as the cataracts, and affording an excellent harbour, capable of holding the whole navy of Great Britain; but unfortunately the bar will not allow vessels that draw more than eighteen feet to go over it. For thirty miles inland, along the banks of the Demerara, the country consists of extensive level meadows or savannahs; several sand hills then appear, and as the river is ascended, the country becomes more broken and mountainous.

The general direction of the river, ascending it, is south, with a slight inclination to E.; the rapids *in a straight line* being not more than seventy English statute miles S. by E. of George Town, but one hundred and six by the course of the river. The difference of level between the water above and below the rapids is only twelve feet, and the river describes at them a very considerable arc of a circle, the chord of which is about one mile and a half; the rapids are descended safely in small canoes. Of its source we know, I believe, nothing certain.

The Berbice River. 57 miles E. of the Demerara, reaches the Atlantic in 6. 24 N. Lat.; at its luxuriant looking entrance, a little to the N. of Fort St. Andrew it is about three miles wide, with low cleared land on both sides, covered with trees, and at a distance resembles a number of islands. In the

owners, surrounded by a garden and lofty trees, and separated from each other by canals, dykes, or lofty mud embankments. The most ancient part of the capital *Stabroek*, runs back from the river towards the forest, consisting of two rows of houses full a mile long, with a broad and shaded road between them, and a canal in the rear of each line of houses, communicating with the river. In consequence of the scarcity of fresh water each house is provided with a large cistern, and pipes leading into it, for the preservation of rain water. The barracks, hospitals, and public buildings in Demarara, are in evidence of the taste and munificence of the Colonists, at whose cost they have been erected.

middle channel lies Crab island (so called from its numerous crabs), about one mile in circumference, with a spit of land running out to the N. and S. dividing the river into two navigable channels; the E. with 17 to 20 feet, the W. with but 8 to 13 feet water. Eight miles N. of Crab island is a bar of sand, with only seven feet on it at low water,* thus lessening the importance of the harbour.

There are several small creeks on the coast, but navigable only by boats, and a shallow flat extending along the shore renders it impossible for vessels, except those of small draught, to approach within a league of the coast. Moderately sized ships can go up the river Berbice as far as Fort Nassau, which is at the distance of fifty miles in a straight line from the entrance, and vessels drawing fourteen feet water may, it is said, sail two hundred miles up the Berbice. The banks of the river are low and covered with numerous plantations, as also along the sixty miles of sea coast territory of Berbice, the roads through which close along the sea coast, communicating with Demerara, are kept in excellent repair at the expense of the individual proprietors through whose estates they pass, and may be said to be almost entirely formed of brick. The early Dutch settlers constructed a fortress fifty miles up the river, called Zelandica, but this was subsequently abandoned and New Amsterdam built on the side of the river Canjee,† at its confluence with the river Berbice, two miles above Crab island, on the E. bank of the river,

* Neap tides at Berbice rise from eight to nine feet, and springs eleven feet; in September before the equinox they rise fifteen feet; the flood sets strong to the W. and the ebb to the E. The times of high and low water at full and change of moon along this coast are, seven miles off Bram's point 5h. 00m. At Bram's point 5h. 30m. Off Fort Amsterdam 6h. 10m.; Fort Zeelandia, 7h. 00m. At Demerara bar generally at half past four; and at Fort Frederick at five.

† The Canjee river, or creek, waters the Berbice district, and is navigable for schooners for fifty miles, but its course is then impeded by falls and cataracts. About forty miles below its head there is a creek, communicating with the Courantyn river, by which despatches have been conveyed from Surinam to British Guyana by the Indians.

where it is intersected by canals, and has all the advantage of the tides.

Three strong batteries protect the entrance of the river, two on the E. side, and the other York redoubt, on the west side, opposite Crab island. Fort St. Andrews, nearly four miles from the entrance of the river, and two from New Amsterdam, is like Fort Wm. Frederick in the Demerara river, a small, low fortification, consisting of four bastions, surrounded by a ditch or fosse, and mounted with eighteen twelve pounders. An extensive savannah or swamp extends in the rear of the fort (which is separated from New Amsterdam by the Canjee river or creek) so that it cannot be commanded from any adjacent point. Sixty miles E. of Berbice river lies the Courantyne, about three miles wide at its entrance, with the navigation obstructed by many small islands and quicksands. The islets are fertile, covered with trees, and having on the W. side good clean anchorage in five fathoms. The W. banks of the river (which form the E. boundary of Berbice) are under British jurisdiction, and have a smiling appearance of cultivation. Besides the foregoing there are numerous other rivers, which in Guyana are termed *creeks*, though they would be considered large rivers in Europe; among the principal is the Mahaica creek, about twenty miles to windward or eastward of the Demerara, between that and Abary creek; the Mahaicony is also on the E. or windward coast, not far from the Mahaica; the Boesary is on the leeward coast, near the Essequibo; along the interior or southern portion of the Colony there are numberless small rivers and creeks intersecting wild and almost impenetrable forests, which, during the rainy season, empty themselves in torrents into the larger rivers, Essequibo, Cayuni, (of which we know very little) Mazarooni, Demerara, Berbice, &c., which latter rivers generally flow towards the ocean in discoloured streams at the rate of six or seven knots an hour.

Climate.—The mortality of Europeans on the early settlement or colonization of Guyana was very great, partly owing to torrid heat acting on a moist soil and dank luxurious

vegetation pregnant with animal and vegetable decomposition, and partly owing to the intemperate habits of the settlers and their non-conformity with the customs of the country, and the dictates of nature: of late years, however, as the coast became cleared, and a free circulation of air was admitted, the health of British Guyana has materially improved, and may now be considered as good as the nature of a low country will permit in any zone, particularly when we consider the extraordinary quantity of rain which falls annually.* It is difficult to ascertain accurately the quantity of rain falling annually, not only because Demerara is subject to two rainy seasons, but from the variation which takes place in cleared and drained land, on the sea-coast or in the interior. In the *dry season*, and when the sea breeze prevails, there is rarely any moisture observable in the morning, the thermometer F. averaging about 82 during the night, with no very material difference in the shade during the day. At the distance of twenty miles from the sea, or where the country is not extensively cleared, the trees and plants will be found every morning dripping with dew, the thermometer falling to 76 or 78, and a blanket is acceptable at nights. As the country is ascended (or southerward towards the Equator) the vicissitude of climate is yet greater, and on the table land, 300 miles inland, the climate is described to be delicious, and the influence of the monsoons regularly felt in the periodical fall of rain. Two wet and two dry seasons mark the revolutions of the year, each continuing for three months; the wet embrace the months of December, January and February; and then June, July and August, during which periods the thermometer is lower than at any other time, and the land winds (which are of course less healthy than the sea breeze) prevail. The dry season is exceedingly delightful; the morning twilight commencing at four, gradually unveils a deep azure sky, over which the sun crosses cloudlessly from the ocean to the

* In 1830 there fell, in five months, six feet eight inches of rain at George Town.

inland mountains, behind which it sets. The invigorating sea breeze sets in at ten, giving animation to nature, and continuing to blow with increasing vigour till sunset, at 6 p. m., when it gradually dies away, but frequently returns again during the night.

During the *wet season* the wind is often from S. to W., and the rain then descends in torrents, sometimes for two or three days without intermission, in the interior and on the coast; at these periods our sailors say it only leaves off *raining* to commence *pouring;* it appears to be admitted that the moisture, and consequently the fertility, of British Guyana is greater than that of the contiguous coast of the Orinoco, and may be accounted for by waters of the Essequibo, Demerara and Berbice having less declivity than those of the mighty Orinoco. Yellow fever (if in reality it ever did exist there) has for some years been unknown in Guyana, but agues, and what we term in India jungle fevers, are prevalent among new comers if they rashly expose themselves to the night air or vertical sun. Demerara has been cited as one of the strongest instances of a deleterious atmosphere, particularly among our West India Colonies, but when we come to examine facts, it turns out otherwise; the range of mortality, even among the *labouring* slave population, is about one in thirty-seven to forty, but in London and France it is equal as regards the *whole* population, rich and poor, and in other countries it is even more; thus, in Naples, one in thirty-four; Wirtembergh, one in thirty-three; Paris, one in thirty-two; Berlin, one in thirty-four; Nice, one in thirty-one; Madrid, one in twenty-nine; Rome, one in twenty-five; Amsterdam, one in twenty-four; Vienna, one in twenty-two and a half! Thus that which is termed our most unhealthy West India Colony has, even as regards its working population, a greater duration of life than the rich and poor of some of the principal parts of Europe! On six years, ending 1832, the *increase* on 40,892 Creole population was 3,678, or nine per cent. The following comparison will put this point more

clearly;* in the Appendix to the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the Factory Bill, it appears, that, in a number of 10,000 deaths in a healthy county (Rutland) under twenty years of age, 3,756 died; under forty years of age, 5,031 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 4,969. In London, under twenty years of age, 4,580 died; under forty years of age, 6,111 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 3,889. In the town of Preston, under twenty years of age, 6,083 died; under forty years of age, 7,462 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 2,538. In the town of Leeds, under twenty years of age, 6,213 died; under forty years of age, 7,441 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 2,559. In the town of Bolton, under twenty years of age, 6,113 died; under forty years of age, 7,459 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 2,541: contrast this with Demerara, where it appears, by the last registration, that the deaths during the triennial period, were 7,016, of whom died under twenty years of age, 1,929; died under forty years of age, 3,359; and 3,657 lived to upwards of forty years of age. Supposing, then, the number of deaths to have been 10,000, instead of 7,016, the result would be—died under twenty years of age, 2,749; died under forty years of age, 4,788; and lived to forty and upwards, 5,212, being 243 in favour of the duration of life in the colony of Demerara, as compared with a healthy county (Rutland) in England, and a still greater and increasing difference in favour of the colony, as compared with the towns before mentioned.

In the hurricane months, when the Caribbee islands are ravaged with terrific tempests, vast masses of clouds, Pelion-like upon Ossa, advance towards the south; the mountains inland reverberate with pealing thunder, and the night is illumined with faint lightning coruscations; brief storms succeed; but, happily, the Barbadian hurricane is unfelt.

* I am indebted to Mr. P. M. Stewart's valuable defence of the West India Colonists on the 30th May, 1833, for these details.

The length of the day in Guyana is about thirteen hours. In the hot season, the thermometer ranges from 84 to 90, on the coast; and, twenty miles inland, seldom exceeds 80, during the warmest part of the day, falling at night to 60, or even 50.*

The following Meteorological Register, though noted at the Military Hospital at Demerara, may serve for the whole coast of British Guyana.

	Ther.	Wind.	Remarks.
January ..	85 to 74	E.	Cool and pleasant; refreshing breezes.
February ..	86 to 76	N. E.	Clouds heavy, with occasional showers.
March ..	85 to 77	E. N. E.	Ditto, frequent ditto.
April	85 to 76	E.	Hot; no rains.
May	86 to 78	N. E.	Clouds heavy; frequent lightning.
June	83 to 75	S. and variable.	Hot, with occasional rains.
July	86 to 78	E. and S.	Sultry and oppressive.
August ..	89 to 77	S.	Hot; occasional rains.
September ..	87 to 77	S. and E.	Warm; thunder and lightning.
October ..	86 to 76	Variable.	Refreshing breezes; light showers.
November ..	85 to 77	N. and E.	Steady, exhilirating breezes; ditto.
December ..	78 to 75	N. N. E.	Heavy showers; strong winds; cool.

In considering the climate of tropical countries, the influence of the moon seems to be entirely overlooked; and surely, if the tides of the vast ocean are raised from their fathomless bed by lunar power, it is not too much to assert that the tides of the atmosphere are liable to a similar influence; this much is certain, that, in the low lands of tropical countries, no attentive observer of nature will fail to witness the power exercised by the moon over the seasons, and also over animal and vegetable nature. As regards the latter, it may be stated that there are certainly thirteen springs and thirteen autumns, in Demerara, in the year; for so many times does the sap of trees ascend to the branches, and descend to the roots. For example, the *wallaba* (a resinous tree, common in the Demerara woods, somewhat resembling mahogany), if cut down in the dark, a few days before the *new moon*, it is one of the most durable woods in the world for house building, posts, &c.; in that state, attempt to split it, and, with the utmost difficulty, it will be riven in the most jagged unequal manner that can be imagined; cut

* At the Portuguese fort of St. Joaquim, on the Rio Negro, (Lat. 3 N. Long. 62 W.) which was visited by Dr. Hancock, the thermometer ranges from 76 to 89 in April.

down another wallaba (that grew within a few yards of the former), at *full moon*, and the tree can be easily split into the finest smooth shingles of any desired thickness, or into staves for making casks; but, in this state, applied to house-building purposes, it speedily decays. Again—bamboes, as thick as a man's arm, are sometimes used for paling, &c.: if cut at the dark moon, they will endure for ten or twelve years; if at full moon, they will be rotten in two or three years; thus is it with most, if not all, the forest trees. Of the effects of the moon on animal life, very many instances could be cited. I have seen, in Africa, the newly littered young perish, in a few hours, at the mother's side, if exposed to the rays of the full moon; fish become rapidly putrid, and meat, if left exposed, incurable or unpreservable by salt;—the mariner, heedlessly sleeping on deck, becoming afflicted with nyctolopia or night blindness, at times the face hideously swollen if exposed during sleep to the moon's rays, the maniac's paroxysms renewed with fearful vigour at the full and change, and the cold damp chill of the ague supervening on the ascendency of this apparently mild yet powerful luminary. Let her influence over this earth be studied, it is more powerful than is generally known.

According to Mr. Hillhouse, who has repeatedly visited the interior, the climate of the region inhabited by the Indians is much more salubrious than that of the coast; though approaching nearer to the line, its superior elevation causes a decrease of temperature, and the surface of the earth is always kept cool, from the thick shade of the forest with which it is universally covered.

It is a common observation, that the air of the rivers is unhealthy; but this only applies to that part of them which runs through the swamp land and level with the sea coast; here the exhalations and vapours accumulate, and the sea breeze is not always sufficiently constant or powerful to dissipate them. Throughout the whole extent of the salt or brackish water, fever and ague predominates; but, beyond the influx of the tide, the banks of the rivers are so proverbially healthy, that

were the population ten times more numerous than it is, there would be little employment for a physician.

As we approach the high sand hills of the interior, the natural drainage is so perfect, and the torrents of fresh water supplied by the creeks form so strong a current, that all impurities are quickly drained from the vallies, and the surface water is instantly absorbed by the sands. The water of those creeks that are uniformly shaded from the sun, is about five degrees colder than that of the river.

The breadth of the river, by exposing a great surface to the influence of the sun, causes its increased temperature. During the night, therefore, which is seven or eight degrees cooler than the day, the water of the river becomes comparatively a warm bath; and the time of its lowest comparative temperature is about noon, when the heat of the air is greatest, and the river has not yet recovered the heat it lost during the night. Bathing, therefore, in the heat of the day, is more bracing to the system; but bathing in the morning is most congenial to the feelings, as there is scarcely any difference between the temperature of the air and the water, for two hours after sun-rise.

The evaporation in the neighbourhood of the line being supposed ten times greater than near the poles, the rains are in proportion much more heavy and frequent. In these regions vegetation would cease, were the supply of moisture only equal to that of temperate climates; and, upon the hills, where the water runs off more rapidly, a greater quantity of rain is required than in the vallies, where it stagnates, and is absorbed in superior proportion by the earth. We accordingly find that, upon the hills of the interior, the clouds discharge three times as much rain as falls upon the coast, and without causing any inconvenience. This disproportion between the rains of the coast and the interior would not be so great, but from the circumstance of the vast tract of low land, from which the forest has been cleared for cultivation. Woody countries are always the most humid—and, in a plain without trees, the clouds will pass over without discharging

any rain, from the want of points of attraction. The importance of this fact has not hitherto met with sufficient consideration. A plain in the tropics, without rain to moisten it, soon becomes a sterile desart; and nothing will attract the electricity of the clouds, and cause them to burst, but the intervention of groups or rows of tall trees. It is a point, therefore, worthy the consideration of the Colonial Legislature, to preserve a portion of bush standing on the coast for the attraction of the rains; or, to oblige the different estates to plant tall fruit or forest trees on their side-lines—as there is no doubt, that the more the country is cleared of bush, the drier it becomes, and the less fertile, and this more particularly with regard to the sugar cultivation.

In the interior, the direction of the winds is by no means so uniform as on the coast. From the month of April to July, they blow more from the south than from any other point; and these land winds, which occur at intervals throughout the year, by impeding the course of the clouds, as they are propelled by the sea breeze, are another cause of the increased rains.

From the superior salubrity of the climate, and the simple habits of the Indians, it is reasonable to suppose that, prior to the introduction of rum, they enjoyed great longevity. The native intoxicating beverages are so mild and diuretic, that little inconvenience results from their excesses with them; but their system of computation is so defective, that they can neither calculate their own age, or those of their offspring.

Early puberty is common in all hot latitudes; but it does not seem to shorten the period of existence, though the appearance of age comes on sooner. The Indian girls are marriageable at twelve or thirteen, and the boys at fifteen or sixteen—at twenty-five years the women lose all the appearance of youth; but the men at forty are not older in appearance than Europeans of the same age.

I agree with the Surveyor of Demerara that upon the whole, there is no doubt, that if the hand of cultivation reached to the hills of the interior, and a few artificial improvements

were added to the advantages of local situation, the climate of the Indians would be the most healthy and agreeable of any within the tropics—with fish, flesh, fowl, and vegetables in abundance, pure water, no fevers, and no mosquitoes.

Geology. Little is known of the geological strata of Guyana. An alluvial flat extends along the sea coast for about thirty miles inland, terminating at a range of sand hills. Efforts have recently been made to obtain water by boring at George Town. In 1830 Major Staples sunk a shaft of 140 feet at Cumingsburgh; on arriving at the micaceous sub-stratum indicating a primary formation, a clear spring of water, strongly impregnated with iron, burst forth.* At twelve feet below the alluvial surface, an irregular stratum of fallen trees (of a kind called the Courida, and still known on the coast) was discovered, in a semi-carbonized state; and, at forty feet depth, blue clay; at fifty feet below the surface, another similar stratum of decaying wood, twelve feet thick; nine feet deeper, a compact of whitish grey clay; thirty-one ditto, yellow sand, mixed with clay; six ditto, violet-coloured clay, diminishing in shades to yellow light straw, and again merging into slate-coloured clay; the remainder, to a depth of one hundred and twenty feet from the surface, is argile, the lower part being of that smooth soapy surface indicating the purest wedgewood clay. Mr. Hillhouse says, that it seems evident from this 'that, some ages ago, this continent was habitable fifty feet below the present surface, and that it was then covered with an immense forest of Couridas, which was destroyed by conflagration, as appears by the ochrous sub-stratum. The sea must, at that time, have been confined to the blue water, where there is now eight or nine fathoms; and, whatever may have been the comparative level between the Pacific and Atlantic, on this side of the Isthmus of Darien the surface must have been then fifty feet lower than now.'

* This water is perfectly good for washing and for culinary purposes (except for tea) after exposure to the air. Wells have since been sunk in

The delta of the Essequibo (and, to a considerable extent, along all the rivers) is decayed vegetable matter, forming a fertile black mould, on a clayey sub-stratum. As the Essequibo is ascended, the alluvium of the estuary changes to white sandstone, with scattered appearances of black oxyde of manganeze; to the sandstone felspar succeeds, and then granite. The mountain ranges seen on passing from the Essequibo into the Mazarooni, appear to be white quartz, 5,000 feet high, having the appearance of gold, from the numerous shining particles of mica in the quartz, which give to the mass the appearance of the precious metals, thus forming the far-famed *El*-Dorado of the chivalrous and ill-treated Raleigh.* On the Demerara river, the first indication of rock is met with at seventy miles from George Town, under water; it appears to be porphyritic sandstone. At the Post-holder's (ninety-four miles from George Town), there is a large bed of rocks of a granitic nature, with some hornblende, and at the rapids, one hundred and six miles up (or seventy miles, as the crow flies, from George Town), there is abundance of stratified green-stone.

The structure of the mountains is principally granite, with a large proportion of ironstone. The Warow land of Poomeroon, and the coast lands of the whole colony, are described by an accurate observer as principally composed of an alluvial blue clay, intermixed with narrow strata of sand—and, on the Mahaica coast, with sand and shell reefs.

This tract is most particularly adapted to the cultivation of sugar, cotton, and plantains, to which it is mainly devoted; nor does there exist in the known world a soil possessed of such amazing richness and fertility. It is never manured, though an acre has been known to produce upwards of 6,000 lbs. of sugar, or 20,000 lbs. of farinaceous food (the

various parts of the colony, and water obtained at depths varying from 100 to 145 feet. This supply has proved a great advantage to the inhabitants.

* Raleigh's peak is supposed to be volcanic, and, according to the Indians, several volcanoes exist in the interior, particularly between the Siparoonee and Ripanoone rivers.

plantain), in a year. As we go deeper into the interior, the clay loses its blue tinge, and gradually becomes yellow; at this stage, it is always covered with a stratum of vegetable residuum, called pegas, which is the half-decayed vegetable mould from dead grass and leaves, and is, in many places, several feet deep, forming a great impediment to cultivation.

Plantains do not thrive in this land; but it is peculiarly favourable to the growth of coffee, for which it is principally cultivated, and the returns are ample, and of superior quality.

Behind the pegas lands, come high ridges of sand, interspersed with vallies, in which is a slight admixture of clay. These sand reefs present many fertile spots for the cultivation of coffee, cocoa, arnotto, fruits, and ground provisions of all kinds; and, extending in their direction parallel with the sea coast, are occupied exclusively by the Arawaak nation.

To the south of this belt the rocky region commences, consisting of elevated ridges and detached conical hills, resting on bases of sand, stone, granite, and silicious crystal, containing a great variety of ochres and iron ores, mica, prismatic, hexagonal crystals, and, in some instances, slight indications of the precious metals. Though it is fully as probable that gold and silver exists in the primitive mountains of the west, as well as in those of the eastern coast, yet no native specimens have ever been produced by the Indians within our territory. Two or three attempts at mining were made by the Dutch, on their first settlement in Essequibo, but the ore was not found worth the expense of working. The most probable site of the precious metals, is in the mountains of the Attaraya and Attamacha nations.

The rocky region is possessed by the Accaways and Caribisce, interspersed with small settlements of Macousi and Paramuna; but these latter are principally found in the debateable land at the foot of the mountains, where they become the alternate victims both of the coast tribes and the mountaineers.

In addition to the foregoing details derived from various sources, I am indebted to the urbanity and science of Dr.

Hancock of Demerara, for the following developement of the geology of the interior of British Guyana, in which the learned and philanthropic doctor has long resided. Nothing of petrifactions, sea shells or the organic remains of marine animals has yet been observed in the mountains of the interior of British Guyana. The principal component parts of the interior mountains are granite, porphyry, and their various modifications, all denoting a primitive formation, while the exterior ranges towards the coast of a minor elevation, are chiefly composed of indurated clays, with sand and gravel stones; indicating a secondary order of formation. The great rocks of the interior are chiefly of a conoidal figure; on a savannah in 2.50. N. Lat. there is a mountain called *Weive*, composed of *one* entire solid block of granite, seven hundred feet high, and about forty miles to the N. E. is another still higher, called Taripoor, (devil's rock); they are both of the cone or pyramid shape, much exceeding the Egyptian piles in elevation and magnitude. Veins of quartz are very common traversing the great masses of granite, and most perspicuous along the channel of the rivers in the dry season, the direction of all the strata in Guyana being almost uniformly from N.E. to S. W. Vast quantities of iron are met with in the mountains, the soil of which (as also that of many parts of the interior), consists of a strong and fertile loam, being a mixture of clay, sand, and vegetable mould, with little calcareous earth, but much ferruginous matter, giving to the soil a reddish tinge in some places. The soil of some of the upland savannahs is composed of clay and gravel very close, and though apparently sterile, yielding food for the immense herds of cattle and horses that depasture along the Rio Branco. Of a very pure white clay, there are immense masses forming the high banks of the Essequibo above the falls, which would probably prove a valuable article in the manufacture of stone-ware or porcelain, as would also the huge blocks of milk-white quartz found in various places. Some indurated clays, of great hardness, have been found mixed with sand, mica, calcareous earth, oxyde of iron, &c.

amorphous and full of particles of a metallic brilliancy. These indurations, which are of various degrees of hardness, lie in horizontal strata, breaking into diagonal plates; they are found along the edge of the water, and Dr. Hancock thinks are caused from the alternate influence of the sun and water, assisted by a deposition of heterogeneous earthy matters. Substances of a metallic nature which have the appearance of ores are also very abundantly met with in the mountains, but still more plentiful among the falls and rapids of the river. Rock crystal is found upon several mountains of Demerara, growing (if it may be so said) out of beds of quartz; Dr. Hancock only met with one species, and that always crystalized into hexagonal columns, and generally terminated by a single pyramid with from three to six faces. These columns are commonly found solitary, but are sometimes met with in groups standing together as it were agglutinated. They are perfectly transparent, of a water colour, taking a fine polish, and nearly as hard as agate. Red agate is found in the Rio Mow opposite, and not far distant from a crystal mountain. Much of the land at Moroko is thickly scattered over with silicious gravel stones of an iron colour. At this range of mountains primitive rock in smaller or larger portions is every where to be seen; no traces of a secondary formation are visible; on most of them are found large masses of indurated clay scattered in loose masses amongst the granite, but no calcareous matter or organic bodies are to be found, and they appear as if undisturbed since the creation of the world. The Conoko mountains (belonging to the chain of the cataracts of the Orinoco) form an insulated group, seated on the elevated plains, which separate two great systems of rivers; the tributary streams of the Essequibo flowing N. E. and those of the Tacutu, Branco, &c. S. W. towards the Rio Negro and Amazon. From the summit of these mountains can be seen the spot where the Tacotu and Rapanooni take their rise. The soil here is also of a pure white clay, (not chalk) giving to the Rio Branco and other rivers a milky colour, owing to the quantity of clay therein diffused, and in

such a minute state of subdivision as to require several days before the waters will become transparent by deposition. In fine, as regards geological science, British Guyana presents a wide field for the geologist, and in reference to the agriculturist a great diversity of soil, the three leading features of which are first, the clayey alluvial soil of the coast, extending eight to ten miles inland; second, hills of silicious sand or gravel, which with intervening fertile savannahs extend to the falls fifty miles inland; third, a rich primitive soil; and, lastly, a mountainous country, with divers coloured ochres, indurated clays, and various mixtures of loamy earth and vegetable mould on beds of granite to a vast extent, all offering food and the means of obtaining every necessary and comfort of life to the hand of the industrious and skilful emigrant.

Population. In estimating the population of births and deaths in the African population of the West India Colonies, it must be remembered that the African is as much a stranger to the West India climate and soil as the European is, and, indeed, experience teaches that the superior civilization and food of the European renders him much better enabled to withstand vicissitudes of climate than his dark coloured brethren. The decrease of the African slave population (especially when we consider manumissions, the prevailing disparity of the sexes, and the arts to which the African women resort to prevent their being mothers) is not therefore to be wondered at, but it will be found to be over balanced by the increase of the creole population, or Colonial born African descendents. I am not now necessitated to enter into the question whether a state of slavery in the West India islands has caused a decrease of population or otherwise; my province is more particularly to detail facts when we have not sufficient means to draw a fair conclusion; many subsequent tables, therefore, will be considered as data merely—rescued from the oblivion of fleeting and scattered records—and not for the purpose of establishing any preconceived theory or foregone conclusion.

Summary of the Slave Population of the United Colony of Demerara and Essequibo, from the year 1817 to the year 1832, at intervals of three years.

When Registered.	Males.		Females.		Total.	Under 30 Years of Age.	Above 30 Years of Age.	Excess of Males.	Excess of Africans.	Excess of Creoles.	Births.	Deaths.	Decrease on the Three Years.
	African.	Creole.	African.	Creole.									
31st May, 1817* .	26,725	17,046	15,499	17,893	77,163	46,350	30,813	10,379	7,285	. .	4,868	7,140	2,272
31st May, 1820 .	24,658	18,569	14,471	19,678	77,376	39,940	37,436	9,078	88.	. .	4,512	7,188	2,676
31st May, 1823 .	21,767	19,457	13,005	20,748	74,977	36,605	38,372	7,471	. .	5,433	4,512	7,188	2,676
31st May, 1826 .	18,898	19,860	11,592	21,032	71,382	35,257	36,125	6,134	. .	10,402	4,494	7,634	3,140
31st May, 1829 .	16,384	20,757	10,343	21,983	69,467	35,393	34,074	4,815	. .	16,013	4,084	5,731	1,047
31st May, 1832 .	13,519	20,830	9,052	22,116	65,517	34,359	31,158	3,181	. .	. .	4,086	7,016	2,930

The two following censuses were made in 1829 and 1832. I give them as historical records, in order that they may serve for comparison at a future period:—

Summary of the Slave Population of the united Colony of Demerara and Essequibo, 31st May, 1829.

African males, 16,384; Creole ditto, 20,757; total, 37,141. African females, 10,343; Creole ditto, 21,983; total, 32,326; grand total, registered for 31st May, 1829, 69,467. Of whom are males under three years, 2,319; females, 2,365; above three, and not above five years, 2,926; between five and ten years, 5,251; ten and twenty, 13,060; twenty and thirty, 9,472; thirty and forty, 10,835; forty and fifty, 14,856; fifty and sixty, 6,239; sixty and seventy, 1,621; seventy and eighty, 417; eighty and ninety, 56; ninety and a hundred, 8; upwards of 100, 1; ages unknown, presumed to be absentees, 41.

Statement of the Slave Population of the District of Demerara and Essequibo, 31st May, 1832.

African males, 13,519; Creole ditto, 20,830; total males, 34,349. African females, 9,052; Creole ditto, 22,116; total females, 31,168; grand total registered for 31st May, 1832, 65,517. Of whom are males, under three years, 1,974; females, ditto, 2,112; above three, and not above five years, 2,744; between five and ten, 5,401; ten and sixteen, 6,115; sixteen and thirty, 16,013; thirty and forty, 8,345; forty and fifty, 13,585; fifty and sixty, 7,179; sixty and seventy, 1,613; seventy and eighty, 363; eighty and ninety, 40; ninety and a hundred, 7; aged one hundred and upwards, 2; ages unknown,

* Between 1817 and 1820 were considerable Importations of Slaves from other Colonies; some few also between 1820 and 1823; and afterwards at the Census of 1829, there were of *males* under three years of age, 2,319, of *females*, 2,365; and in 1832, males, 1,974, females, 2,365; thus indicating a rising preponderance in females, the preliminary to an increasing population.

Decrease by death since the preceding Registration—males, under ten years of age, 547; females, ditto, 517; males, between ten and twenty, 214; females, ditto, 195; males, between twenty and thirty, 222; females, ditto, 170; males, between thirty and forty, 775; females, ditto, 436; males, between forty and fifty, 1,129; females, ditto, 503; males, upwards of fifty, 630; females, ditto, 393; total, 5,371.

Births since last Registration—males, under three years, 2,319; females, ditto, 2,365; total, 4,684.

Decrease on the three past years, 1,047.

presumed to be absentees, 24; total, 65,517.

Decrease by death since the preceding Registration—males, under ten years of age, 770; females, ditto, 714; males, between ten and twenty, 216; females, ditto, 229; males, between twenty and thirty, 254; females, ditto, 194; males, between thirty and forty, 637; females, ditto, 345; males, between forty and fifty, 1,277; females, ditto, 622; males upwards of fifty, 1,121; females ditto, 637; total, 7,016. Of whom were Africans, 3,850; ditto Creoles, 3,166.

Births since last Registration—males under three years of age, 1,974; females ditto, 2,112; total, 4,086.

Decrease on the past three years, 2,930.

I have found it difficult to obtain returns of any nature from Berbice; it is to be hoped that in future the general returns for Guyana will not disappoint the statistician.

Berbice Slave Population from 1817 to 1831:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Decrease by Manumission.	
				Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1817	13,802	10,747	24,549	—	—	—	—	—	—
1819	13,327	10,441	23,768	—	—	—	—	—	—
1822	12,007	10,349	22,356	827	822	1,249	987	3	15
1825	11,423	10,041	21,464	773	740	1,348	1,052	12	20
1828	11,858	9,541	20,899	919	869	1,029	707	47	56
1831	11,020	9,625	20,645	820	770	1,092	795	49	69

The following Census shews the total Population of Demerara alone, 31st October, 1829.

No. of Company.	Battalion of Militia.	DISTRICTS.	Whites.			Free Black and Coloured.			Grand Total.
			Males.	Females	Total.	Males.	Females	Total.	
1	2	From pl. Thomas to pl. Lusignan, parish of St. George and St. Mary	81	7	88	23	42	65	153
2	—	From pl. Annandale to pl. Lancaster, parish of St. Paul and St. Mary	87	1	88	29	37	66	154
3	—	From pl. Cane Grove to Mahaica Village, parish of St. Mary	71	10	81	67	113	180	261
4	—	From Abary to pl. Bath, parish of St. Mary.	28	3	31	38	74	112	143
1	3	From pl. La Penitence, including Canal No. 3, parish of St. Matthew	82	20	102	36	51	87	189
2	—	From pl. La Grange to pl. Waller's Delight, parish of St. Swithin	52	7	59	33	44	77	136
3	—	From pl. La Parfait Harmonie to pl. Wales, parish of St. Mark	60	11	71	25	33	58	129
4	—	From pl. Vriesland to Soesdyk, parish of St. Mark and part of St. Matthew	32	2	34	38	46	84	118
5	—	From pl. Sans Souci on the lower side, to Dinabuna on the upper, parishes of St. Mark and St. Matthew	23	9	32	55	51	106	138
6	—	From Windsor Forest to Bocrasirie Creek, parishes of St. Swithin and St. Luke ..	80	2	82	25	28	53	135
7	—	From pl. Zeelugt to Beverhants, parish of St. Luke	35	23	58	37	45	82	140
—	—	From pl. Mara to pl. Loo, Upper Demerara River, parish of St. Luke	31	15	46	57	53	110	156
			662	110	772	463	617	1080	1852

A similar Return for Essequibo, at the same date, gives the population thus.

No. of Company.	Battalion of Militia.	DISTRICT.	Whites.			Free Black and Coloured.			Grand Total.
			Males.	Females	Total.	Males.	Females	Total.	
2	1	From Fort Island, inclusive of both sides of the river upwards	9	13	22	61	58	119	141
3	—	Leguan Island and Hog Island, parish of St. Peter	110	32	142	52	51	103	245
4	—	From pl. Caledonia to pl. Maria's Lodge, parish of St. James	86	15	101	34	37	71	172
5	—	From Vergeeleegen to Aboeneboenaba, parish of St. John	33	13	46	176	186	362	408
1	2	From Caro Caro Creek to pl. Hoff Van Holland, parish of St. John	54	12	66	62	66	128	194
2	—	From pl. Alliance to Cattle Town, parish of St. John	63	37	100	28	38	66	166
3	—	From pl. Taymouth Manor to Shamrock Hall	121	16	137	29	34	63	200
			476	138	614	442	470	912	1526

Of Berbice, I can find no similar return; but the accompanying shews the

General Population of Demerara and Essequibo, 31st. Oct. 1829; and of Berbice, agreeably to Census of 1827, and Slave Registration of 1831.

	Whites.			Free, Black, and Coloured.			Grand Total.	Slaves on the 31st May, 1829.			Grand Total.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.		Males.	Females.	Total.	
Demerara	662	110	772	463	617	1080	1852	..	..	39,199	41,051
Essequibo	476	138	614	442	470	912	1526	..	..	23,553	25,079
Total in the Country	1138	248	1386	905	1087	1992	3378	33,833	28,869	62,572	66,130
Do. in George Town*	962	658	1620	1625	2743	4368	5988	3209	3407	6616	12,604
General Total ..	2100	906	3006	2530	3830	6360	9366	37,092	32,276	69,368	78,734
Berbice†	419	104	523	454	707	1161	..	10,998	9420	20,418	22,102
Grand Total of Mouths	2519	1010	3529	2984	4537	7521	9,366	48,090	41,696	89,786	100,836

* General Census and Appraisement of George Town of the 31st of October, 1829.

DISTRICTS.	Whites.			Free, Black, and Coloured.			Grand Total.	Appraised Value of Lots and Buildings in 1830.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.		
Kingston	66	68	134	158	277	435	569	*f.* 508,040
North Cumingsburg	117	85	202	231	359	590	792	1,355,350
South Cumingsburg, including Company Path with respect to Appraisement	202	108	310	375	630	1005	1315	1,554,340
Robbs Town	144	32	176	78	135	213	389	1,069,200
New Town, including Columbia	52	21	73	29	58	87	160	362,000
Stabrook	81	69	150	80	182	262	412	427,350
Werken Rust	148	118	266	316	495	811	1077	778,660
Charlestown	86	84	170	183	299	482	652	407,750
Lacy Town	66	73	139	175	308	483	622	—
	962	658	1620	1625	2743	4368	5988	6,462,692

† The Population of Berbice in 1764 was whites, 116; male negroes, 1308; female ditto, 1307; children, 745; total, 3476.

The Slave Population in each parish of Demerara and Essequibo, 31st May, 1832, was—

Parishes.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Births under 3 years of age		Births per Cent.*	Deaths.
				Males.	Females.		
St. Mary . . .	3,394	2,907	6,301	237	224	7, 1993/6301	9, 1891/6301
St. Paul . . .	4,510	4,264	8,774	300	338	7, 590/2193	8, 1931/2193
St. George and St. Andrew	3,993	4,040	8,033	280	297	7, 1469/8033	7, 7769/8033
St. Matthew . .	2,934	2,670	5,604	158	162	5, 995/1401	11, 298/467
St. Mark . . .	2,570	2,063	4,633	116	108	4, 3863/4633	10, 4170/4633
St. Swithin . .	2,059	1,851	3,910	104	104	5, 125/391	13, 307/391
St. Luke . . .	2,930	2,605	5,535	167	193	6, 72/123	11, 463/1107
St. Peter . . .	3,015	2,872	5,887	178	155	5, 3865/5887	13, 969/5887
St. James . . .	2,126	2,040	4,166	82	106	4, 1068/2083	13, 1171/2083
St. John . . .	2,471	2,146	4,617	128	144	5, 4115/4617	11, 2813/4617
The Trinity . .	4,347	3,719	8,059	224	281	6, 2186/8059	10, 616/8059
	34,349	31,168	65,517	1974	2112		
Slaves attached to Plantations	28,083	25,394	53,477	1558	1705		
Personal and Unattached	6,266	5,774	10,040	416	407		

The native Indians of this coast have long engaged the attention of Europeans, and indeed imperatively call for the protection of the British Government. When this part of the South American continent was first visited by the mariners of the old world it was found densely peopled; but few, alas,

* Since the Registration of May, 1829.

now remain to indicate the aboriginal inhabitants of a land which the Whites have made their property,—offering a melancholy contrast to the progress of European colonization and civilization in the Eastern hemisphere.

Mr. Fowel Buxton, and his philanthropic coadjutors, are now directing public attention to this humane and indeed important subject; the following details will therefore be acceptable to all who think it of little consequence whether the image of the Creator be carved in ebony or in ivory, each and all claiming the attention of the philanthropist and christian.

The principal tribes in and around British Guiana, are the 1. Arrawaks, 2. Accawai, 3. Caribisce, 4. Warrows, and 5. Macoosies. The first mentioned border on the coast line—the 2nd are removed further inland—and in stature, colour, and some other respects are like the first. The 3rd. inhabit the upper country between the Essequibo and Cayuny—they are described as having the manliness and intrepidity of all highland tribes, and as being fairer than the Arrawaks, or lowlanders. According to tradition they once inhabited the West India islands; it is more probable however that the W. I. islands were originally peopled by the Caribisce from the main land. The 4th, or Warrows, occupy the coast between the Pomeroon and Orinoko, and are a black short hardy race of fishermen and sailors, subsisting chiefly by boat building. The 5th, or Macoosies, reside in the deep recesses of the forests of the interior, and are numerous, very industrious, extremely cunning, and implacable in their revenge; probably they are the aborigines of the country, and fleeing before more civilized tribes, as we find to be the case in every part of the Eastern hemisphere.

It is difficult, if not impossible, to estimate the number of Indians south of the Rippanooney; about 5000 consider themselves under the protection of the British Government; receiving triennial presents and annual supplies; about 20,000 are migratory, unattached to any particular government, and removing at pleasure from the Orinoque to the Brazils, Cayenne, or Surinam, as necessity (i. e. want of food) or incli-

nation may dictate. Mr. Hillhouse, of Demerara, the generous and indefatigable friend of the Indians, to whose philanthropic labours and varied talents I am indebted for the following details of the different nations within our boundary, places them as in the annexed order:—

1. Caribisce,
2. Accaway,
3. Arawaak,
4. Warrow,
5. Macusi,
6. Paramuni,
7. Attaraya,
8. Attamacka.

The Arrawaaks, it is justly observed, demand our first consideration, as living within the immediate vicinity of the plantations, being the most civilized, and whose services have been the most frequently required. As we are also most familiar with them, their character will serve as a model of general approximation for all other tribes.

This nation can furnish about 400 men, all perfectly acquainted with the use of fire arms, and particularly serviceable in the intersected country and swamps adjoining the plantations.

They consist of the following families, or castes:—

1. Maratakayu,
2. Queyurunto,
3. Wooneseedo,
4. Demaridy,
5. Corobahady,
6. Wurallikaddy,
7. Ebusuana,
8. Dacamocaddy,
9. Aramukunyu,
10. Baboana,
11. Kanahea Macoveyu,
12. Daharabetady,
13. Carabunury,
14. Nebebeetaddy,
15. Seewedey,
16. Jorobalina,
17. Haduadafunha,
18. Boerybetaddy,
19. Caruafuddy,
20. Bakurucaddy,
21. Euboquaddy,
22. Wakuyaddy,
23. Ehbehselio,
24. Wareerobaquady,
25. Aramkritu,
26. Kariwhete,
27. Eubotaddy.

The cast of blood is derived from the mother, and the family genealogy preserved with the greatest care, as a preservative from incestuous intercourse—one family not being allowed to intermarry within itself. The children of the Mara-

takayu father cannot, therefore, be Maratakayu; but if the mother be Queyurunto, the children are also Queyurunto, and can marry into the father's family, but not the mother's.

Marriage is frequently contracted by the parents for their children, when infants. In this case, the young man is bound to assist the family of his wife till she arrives at puberty; he then takes her where he pleases, and establishes his own household. But young men and women who are free, at a more advanced age, consult their inclinations without any ceremony beyond the mere permission of the parent, which is never withheld but on account of family feuds.

Polygamy is allowed and practised by all those who have the means of maintenance for a plurality of wives. This is generally the case with the chiefs or captains, who have sometimes three or four wives. All the inconveniences common in Europe, where there are more mistresses than one in the house, are also felt here; and envy, jealousy, and henpecking, are perfectly understood by their effects in the Arrawaak seraglio. The interference of the husband, with a stout bush rope, is frequently necessary to restore tranquillity, and he is often driven out of the house by the din of domestic warfare.*

The captain commands the services of the families of his different wives on emergencies; and, in return, he is required to become the principal in all feuds, and to exercise towards them all the rights of hospitality, in their most extended sense. On any scarcity of provisions, or prevalence of sickness, all the branches of the family flock to the dwelling of the chief, and live at his expense, without the least doubt of a welcome. It therefore frequently happens, that the chief is fairly eaten out of house and home, and his cassava field completely exhausted. In this predicament he unties his hammock, puts his family into his canoe, and starts off to pay his round of visits amongst his friends, at whose expense he lives, till his next crop of provisions coming in, enables him to return to his home. The visiting is a complete system, and is always made to occupy three months of the twelve.

* Petty family feuds or quarrels are unknown.

The Arrawaak, therefore, in preparing his cassava fields, calculates upon provisions for his family and guests for nine months; and he is never disappointed in the hospitality of his friends for the supply of the other three, although this might be a dangerous experiment in a more civilized community.

The Arrawaaks seldom more than five feet four inches in height, are stout and plump in proportion, but not muscular. Their necks are short, and their ancles, hands and feet, particularly those of the women, remarkably small. The eye slopes upward towards the temples, and the forehead is uniformly lower than that of Europeans. This trait of physiognomy may be supposed indicative of inferiority of intellect; but it is incomparably superior to the cranium of the Negro, whose untutored powers of mind are as much inferior to those of the Indian as are those of the latter to the mental calibre of the European. Some of the castes are almost as fair as the Spaniards or Italians*—whilst those who live near the sea are of a very dark brown, sometimes as dark as what is called a yellow skinned negro; but the straight strong black hair, small features, and well-proportioned limbs, are peculiarities that can never make the Indian be mistaken for the African, even if alike in colour. On the birth of children, the husband, in his hammock receives the congratulations of his friends in due form; and the women of the village are particularly attentive to the wants of the mother. An Indian will bear any insult or inconvenience from his child tamely rather than administer personal correction; Mr. Hillhouse strangely, and I think erroneously, asserts, that the consequence is, the children do not show one-half of the respect to the parents that the extraordinary affection of the latter entitles them to; there is great paternal, but very little filial affection.

A child is named by a pe-i-man, or magician, at any age. An offering of considerable value is necessary on this occasion, as, according to the fee given to propitiate the pe-i-man,

* Dr. Hancock saw some Indian women at the Portuguese fort on the Rio Branco (within two degrees of the Equator) who kept themselves within doors and did not use the Indian paints; and, in respect to colour, they might have passed for Europeans.

so is the virtue of his incantations proportioned. An unnamed Indian is thought to be the certain victim of the first sickness or misfortune that he may encounter;—accordingly, only the very poorest of them are without names. They frequently take the names of Europeans in addition to their Indian appellations, more especially when they have been in the habit of receiving obligations from them; and they frequently ask an European to name a child, by which he enjoys the privilege of making an occasional present.

The secret attachment between the old Dutch proprietors and the Indians, consisted in the colonists taking Indian women for their house-keepers; and of course acquiring some knowledge of their language, and becoming what may be termed "broomstick relations." The Indian is proud of these connections, and though he makes it a point to tease, harass, and defraud the European usurper, who has no connection with him—yet, the moment a family compact is entered into, and the Indian is addressed in his own language, nothing can exceed his faith, attachment, and honourable conduct to his white relation. His heart opens at once, and instead of deceit, suspicion, and distrust, he becomes open and confiding.

This was common during the time of the Dutch government; but, as the taste of the English seems to be directed in a darker channel, the ties of confidence have become entirely extinct, and all that the Indian now cares for, is to levy contributions on all who are simple enough to pay them.

Those who live in immediate contact with us, are so degraded by the practice of all our vices, without any encouragement to copy our virtues, that a humane mind is disgusted at the picture. To such, how bitter must be the reflection, though undoubtedly true, that this horrible state of abandonment is entirely caused by our criminal and hard-hearted neglect of the first duties of humanity. The Dutch were angels to us.*

The Indian, having no inducement to carry on trade or

* To the labour and industry of the Indians the Dutch were indebted for the success of their early settlements; the example of negro slavery must have contributed to bring them to their present state.

commerce, cultivates, during three or four months, as much provision as is necessary for the consumption of his family during the year. The rest of the time is spent in hunting, fishing, visiting, drinking, and dancing. His life is therefore a life of pleasure; and it is with great unwillingness that he undertakes a superfluous degree of labour, by which he relinquishes a present enjoyment for the prospect of future provision, about which he has no care. He takes no thought for to-morrow; Mr. Hillhouse supposes that this is the fault of the climate not of the man, but he should visit Bengal, where, under a similar climate, the thrifty and provident Hindoo accumulates, not merely for the morrow, but for posterity.

The *lex talionis* is observed rigidly, and tends greatly to prevent the increase of population; but, in this respect, the influence of Europeans is productive of the happiest effect: for though an Indian will hear of no compromise from another Indian in a feud of blood, he will yet faithfully abide by the determination and award of a favourite European, and will consent to a commutation, even for the life of the dearest relative, when proposed by his "backra matty." Without this interference, the accidental death of one individual frequently entails destruction on the families of both the slayer and the slain. Most of the blood feuds originate in jealousy and the revenge of connubial injuries, of which they are highly resentful.

The duties of hospitality are paramount with all barbarous nations. When a stranger, and particularly an European, enters the house of an Indian, every thing is at his command. The women prepare the pepper-pot, and bake a hot cake of cassava bread; a bowl of caseri is produced, (a fermented preparation from the sweet potatoe,) and the head of the family strives to forestal all his wants. The young men immediately leave their hammocks to hunt and fish; every article of arms or furniture, except the toys of the children, is at his disposal, and he is absolutely oppressed with the kindness of his welcome. This is exceedingly inconvenient in the sequel, because all offices of kindness are supposed to be

reciprocal. When the Indian pays the white man a visit, the difference in value of his furniture and equipments causes a return in kind to be too expensive. The Indian therefore says, 'When you visit me, I give you every thing I have in the world—but when I visit you, you refuse me the commonest articles of your daily expenditure:' therefore, though they bow to our acknowledged mental superiority, they despise us for our stinginess and inhospitality; and while giving us all due credit for the virtues of the head, they say we have 'no heart for any thing but money.' They have not a community of goods,—individual property being distinctly marked amongst them; but this property is so simple, and so easily acquired, that they are perpetually borrowing and lending, without the least care about payment; and, in the purchase of corials and canoes, their most expensive articles, the buyer is frequently credited, to what we should call a ridiculous extent, especially as there seldom exists the means of enforcing payments.

It is reckoned highly indecent in the men to caress or notice the women in public; and our practice in this respect, appears to them highly contemptible. But the Arrawaak, when secluded from public observation, exhibits as sincere and unreserved an affection for his domestic connections, as the more civilized of any nation; and though apt to fly into the extremes of passion, when influenced by jealousy and intemperance, he is on the whole a good husband and relative, and a most kind and indulgent parent.

The Indians are considered by many deficient of personal courage. It is true, that being of less stature, and possessing less bodily strength, they are unable to cope equally with Europeans, or even negroes. However, in wars amongst themselves, where they are more equally matched, they display a fierce determination that despises all danger; and their combats are always à l'outrance. An Indian, who is deputed to revenge a murder, will follow his enemy for years together, publicly avowing his purpose, which he will not relinquish but with life. Their principle valuable qualities are agility, dexterity, and the intuitive tact of tracking, or discovering

footsteps in the bush.* Where an European can discover no indication whatever, an Indian will point out the footsteps of any number of Negroes, and will state the precise day in which they have passed; and, if on the same day, he will state the hour. In all pursuits of deserters, and reconnoissances of Negro camps, this qualification makes them indispensably necessary, as an expedition without Indian guides has little chance of success.

The Indians manufacture bows, arrows, hammocks, baskets, canoes, and corials, and apparatus for fishing, with considerable ingenuity; but, at a certain pitch, their art is stationary, and there does not appear to have been any improvement or new idea struck out in any of these branches, from time immemorial. This is the case with all barbarous nations till they begin to work the metals; which material, by its fusion and ductility opens a new train of ideas, and enlarges the field for improvement, *ad infinitum*—whereas, in works of wood, bone, or stone, all possible excellence is very soon acquired, and improvement quickly ceases. Their animal perceptions are astonishingly acute; and their speed in their native woods, and over the most difficult ground, far outstrips that of Europeans —few of whom can keep pace with them, even for a short distance. No European march could ever come into competition with the astonishingly rapid movements of the Indian regiments in the army of Bolivar. An expedition, composed exclusively of Indians, will go over three times the ground in the same time that can be traversed by European troops; and this superiority of locomotion, renders them more than a match for double their numbers, in their native wilds. They can, moreover, live comfortably where European troops must starve, and they require no commissariat. With 10 lbs. of cassava bread, an Indian can keep the field for three weeks or a month. His gun will be always in order, and his ammunition dry and serviceable. It is impossible to surprise him;

* Their sense of smell is so great that they will track any animal (man not excepted) by merely smelling the stones or earth on which he may have recently trod.

and, with a commander who can keep pace with him, and in whom he has confidence, the Indian ranger cannot be equalled by the best troops in the known world, for service in a tropical region, and under the burning sun of the line.

Mr. Hillhouse, whose extensive knowledge of the subject entitles his opinions to the utmost attention, considers the settlement of the Indians as so many petty republics, without any universally acknowledged authority, and he strongly recommends our pursuing the same line of policy as that of the Spanish missions on the Orinoque; i. e. placing an intelligent and accomplished European in authority over the Indians, and forming them into military detachments, and establishments. To proceed with the Indian's description:—

The Accawai occupy the country between the rapids and the high mountains of the interior. In the Demerara River, their number is about seven hundred, and in the Massaroony, about 1500. They are not superior to the Arrawaaks in stature, but their skins are of a deeper red, and they are more resolute and determined in their enterprises. They are recognised, at first sight, by a large lump of arnotto, stuck upon their hair over the forehead—with which they paint themselves, both to strike terror, and as a defence from the bite of insects, by its properties. In character they are quarrelsome, warlike, and capable of enduring considerable fatigue and hardship; but such determined republicans in principle, that it is difficult to preserve subordination amongst them; and their chiefs have less consideration out of the limits of their family connections, than the chiefs of other tribes. As soldiers, a well-trained body of Accaways would be capable of performing the most desperate enterprises; but their commander must be endowed with some most peculiar and acknowledged claim to superiority, or they will not yield the least obedience to his authority.*

The Accaways are dreaded by all the other tribes; and,

* At the Portuguese fort St. Joaquim, on the Rio Branco or Parima, there are several hundred Indians, some employed as soldiers, others as agriculturists, and many in manufacturing hammocks and cotton cloths.

wherever they settle, they soon make a clear neighbourhood. They are the pedlars and news-carriers of the whole eastern coast; and their numbers in the interior being superior to those of all the other tribes together, they could easily subdue them, were there any thing like union or subordination amongst them; but, from the want of these, they are constantly at war amongst themselves, and the extent to which they carry on the slave trade keeps their numbers from increasing, so that the other tribes, under the patronage of the Colonial Government, still preserve their liberty.

From their constant locomotion, no accurate census can be taken of their number. It differs every year, and every month of the year, so numerous are their expeditions and emigrations to and from the Orinoque, the Brazils, and Cayenne; but, wherever they travel, they trade and fight—and the travelling kit of an Accaway Indian is as well calculated to drive a bargain as to sack a village.

They are fully as improvident and irregular in their habits as the other tribes; but they calculate their interest to a nicety, and the greatest number of Accaways will always be found where they are best paid, and most encouraged.

Being as hospitable as they are quarrelsome, an Accaway village is always on the alert, to receive properly either a friend or an enemy; and, as the sudden and frequent visits of the numbers that are constantly travelling, demands an extraordinary supply of provisions, their cultivation is double that of the other tribes. If any period of general truce be allowed amongst them, it is during the dry season, in which they prepare and plant their numerous and extensive fields of cassava. But no sooner have they provided a supply for all goers and comers during the ensuing year, than they set to work manufacturing warlike implements of all kinds; and if, by the sale of a few articles, they can muster a cargo of European goods, and a few fire-arms, they set off to the Spanish or Portuguese frontier, to barter them for dogs, hammocks, &c.

In these expeditions several families join, as in the caravans of Asia—their only care being to supply themselves with

a good stock of bread; they then march for three days, and halt for two, during which they hunt and barbacot (smoke dry) their game, and are in no distress for provisions, for even two or three months, which is frequently the duration of their journeys.

In these marches, when they approach a village, it signifies not of what nation, they prepare to attack it. If it be on the alert, and strong enough to resist, they conclude a treaty of commerce, eat together, and trade, without reserve or suspicion; but if the place be weak, and the inhabitants off their guard, those who resist are instantly massacred, and the remainder become slaves to the victors.*

Their audacity in these predatory excursions is astonishing. If a party can muster eight or ten stand of fire-arms, it will fight its way through all the mountain tribes, though at open war with them; and, by the rapidity of their marches, and nightly enterprises, which they call Kanaima, they conceal the weakness of their numbers, and carry terror before them.

On their return from a successful expedition, they prepare for a general and tremendous drinking-match. For several days prior to the piworry feast, all the women in the vicinity are assembled. They sit round a fire, on which the cakes of cassava, made about three-fourths of an inch thick, are baked till they are brown throughout. Each woman, then moistening her mouth with a little water, chews a piece of bread till it is perfectly saturated with saliva; she then strains it in her mouth, and spits out the moisture into a vessel in the centre. When a sufficient quantity of this extract is accumulated, water is added, and it is thrown into a hollow tree, or corial, cleaned out for the purpose, which contains two or three hundred gallons. There it is left to ferment; and as soon as it begins to get sour, the guests assemble, and for two or three days continue to drink, till the whole supply is exhausted. On the second day's debauch, inebriety is general, and all the consequences then ensue, as

* The Portuguese have abolished the slavery of the Indians on Rio Branco.

regularly as at an Irish fair. Quarrels, broken heads, pitched battles, incontinence, and frequently murder.*

During the dry season, the chiefs, or heads of families, exercise more authority than at other periods. The security of a supply of ground provisions for the ensuing year, is a point in which all are concerned, and to this all are bound to contribute to their utmost. The chief, therefore, calls his young men around him, and, selecting a fertile spot, he proceeds with axes and cutlasses to fell the trees with which it is covered, which are left to dry as they fall, and in six or eight weeks they are collected into heaps and burnt. The ashes, forming a strong manure, are mixed up with the soil, and cassava being planted, in nine months the roots are ripe for use. A succession of fields are necessary to keep up the supply during the year; and two crops are all that can be expected from the same field. One Indian will clear, and with his wife, plant two or three acres in as many weeks; and

* These orgies are common to all the Indian nations, and seem to be their great besetting sin, since numerous feuds and fatal consequences frequently ensue, from affronts given or received in these parties; and it is not improbable that the character the Accaways have for frequent quarrelling, may originate in the superior excess to which they indulge themselves in these feasts beyond the other nations, who are more moderate in their debauches. The piworry is very diuretic, and, notwithstanding the insensible state of inebriety, brought on by the enormous quantities of it they imbibe at one sitting, few inconveniences result from it as to health. Now and then a slight fever occurs from exposure to the night air, with the damp earth for a bed; but its ill effects bear no comparison with those resulting from the use of rum. The Indian women, by frequently chewing the piworry, contract a scorbutic redness in their gums. They are frequently annoyed with the tooth-ache, and soon lose their teeth. [The African, Otaheite, and Sandwich Islands' women are similarly affected from preparing a similar drink, in which millet is used.]

Throughout all the tribes of Guiana, however differing in habits or language, the devotion to piworry is universal, and its mode of manufacture the same. It fills the cup of welcome on the arrival of the stranger, and is the pledge of good wishes on his departure—and, though an European stomach may rebel against the mode of its preparation, the rejection of it will, undoubtedly, be resented as an insult to the house and person of the host.

seven or eight acres will supply them with a year's food; so that ten or twelve weeks in the year, is absolutely all that is required for actual labour, and the rest of the time remains for pleasure, hunting, and fishing.

Those who are lazy or absent upon these occasions, receive most severe chastisement, or are driven out of the village; and as their natural impatience of restraint frequently provokes the culprit to an insolent retort, when reprimanded, the punishment, which is uniformly inflicted with the moussy or club, is not unfrequently fatal. At other times, this stretch of authority on the part of the chief, would unite all hands against him; but here they support him from the urgency of the occasion, and his harshness is not resented.

The Accawai are most determined humourists; and in their choice of nick-names, by which they all familiarly address each other, they are careful to select some animal, or peculiar part of one, from which they form the most ridiculous comparison, with some outré quality of the individual.* They do not see an European twice, without affixing to him some ridiculous epithet, most mortifying to his personal vanity. Rank and title have no influence with them in waving this custom; but even a governor or protector has no benefit from his station, but by being made appear more conspicuously ridiculous. This is very annoying to individuals in authority over them; but it is meant as a trial of temper; and, if passed over, or merely laughed at, they yield in return a most prompt obedience, and an alacrity in the execution of the duties required of them, unknown to the other tribes. In fact, the Accawai are more difficult to command by strangers, than the others; but if they see that you will not be put out of humour, nor lose your self-possession, they will soon evince an affection and devotion, encreasing as they become better acquainted with the object of it, and yielding to no instances of European fidelity. But the first impression is with them indelible; and if it be unfavourable, no conciliatory attempt,

* This is also the case with the New Hollanders and several African nations I have met.

or after efforts can efface it. An Accaway, if once a friend, is always a friend; but, if in enmity with you, he can never be reconciled. With indifferent persons, the Accaways are very Jews at a bargain; but they will sell to a favourite for one-half what they demand of a stranger, and they seldom pay debts till they are forced to do it. They manufacture the woraly poison, which they use in shooting feathered game, by means of the woody fibre of the centre of the leaf of the palm. This is blown through a long tube of ten feet, which is also a kind of small palm, hollowed for the purpose, and lined with a hollow smooth reed, called a *sody*. The common woraly has little effect upon the larger animals; but the macusi woraly is sufficiently strong to destroy large animals, and even man. After witnessing various methods of preparation, Mr. Hillhouse is inclined to think that the vegetable extract is merely the medium through which the poison is conveyed—the common woraly owing its poisonous quality to the infusion of the large ants, called Muneery, and the stronger kind from the fangs of venomous reptiles, particularly the Coony Coochy, which is the most venomous of all known snakes.

The Muneery gives the Indians, by its bite, a fever of twelve hours, with the most excruciating pain; and a decoction of two or three hundred of these, may well be supposed capable of depriving small animals of life.

The Accaways have not that open and determined deportment which characterises the Caribisce; but they are, undoubtedly, superior in courage to all the other nations;* and their great numbers, and constant communication with the interior, renders them the most valuable of all the Indians within the Colonial boundaries. Their numbers can be encreased at will, by holding out proper inducements; but at this day they are dissatisfied and discontented, and of course daily decreasing.

The Caribisce occupy the upper part of the rivers Esse-

* The Accawai and Atoriis bury their dead in a sitting posture in a pot made of clay with a cover; and yet they say that the soul of man dies with the body.

quibo and Cayuny, being at the extremest verge of the colony, where they retreated on the first settlement of the Dutch in the lower Essequibo. They are the most brave, credulous, simple, obstinate, and open in their resentments, of all the Indian nations. Their opinion once formed is never modified by circumstances, and that kind of prudence, denominated policy, is unknown to them. They are, in consequence, rapidly decreasing; and though, about twenty years ago, they could muster nearly a thousand fighting men, at this moment Mr. Hillhouse thinks it would be difficult to collect fifty in the whole country below the falls.

Those that remain have retired so far into the interior, that their services are entirely lost to us; but they still preserve a strong attachment to the colony, and a very slight manifestation of kindness would soon induce them to return.

The Caribisce differ materially from the Accaways, in that they never go to war for the purposes of traffic, or procuring slaves. Their disputes are either on account of personal affronts, or infringement of territory, and their wars are always wars of extermination. On the Portuguese frontier, they used sometimes make prisoners and sell them; but with us never, the purchase being prohibited. It was a Caribisce captain, who, on the refusal of a late Governor to accept of a fine slave, immediately dashed out the brains of the slave, and declared, for the future, his nation should never give quarter.*

The Caribisce have some slight tradition of their having once occupied the Caribbean Islands. This is undoubtedly true, as the names of many rivers, points, islands, &c. both in Trinidad and the Leeward Islands, are decidedly Caribisce. It may not be improbable, that the difference in the character of the Caribisce, and the Accawai of the present day, may

* Mr. Hillhouse thinks that to prevent this cruelty, the Governor ought to be empowered to purchase the slave and attach him to some public Indian establishment until his labour remunerated the cost of his ransom. Though this system would save some bloodshed Mr. H. will find, on reflection, that it would cause more wars than before, as has indeed been the case throughout the greater part of Africa.

originate in the former occupation of the islands by the one, and of the continent by the other—their language being nearly identical, and the Caribisce only distinguished by that independent boldness that characterises all islanders, when compared with the inhabitants of neighbouring continents.

The houses* of the Caribisce are constructed of two rows of elastic rods, about twenty feet long, stuck firmly in the ground, and bent over at top into the shape of a pointed arch; the base is about twenty feet, and the whole is covered by the leaves of the palm, laid horizontally from bottom to top. The houses of the Accawai are built either square, like those of the Arrawaaks, or conical, like a bell tent: these are called weemuh, and are very close and warm, being also thatched from the ground to the top, and no aperture for the smoke to escape by, but through the door-way. These weemuh are also used by the Macusi, and several inland tribes. The Caribisce are very indiscriminate in the use of animal food. Nothing comes amiss to them. Tigers, cats, rats, frogs, toads, lizards, and insects, are equally welcome with fish and game. If they shew any predilection, it is in favour of fish. This they catch by stopping creeks at high water, and infusing the hai-arry, or the gonami, in the shallows, the intoxicating qualities of which cause the fish to rise and float insensible on the surface.†

They also shoot them with arrows, as they seek their food in the banks of the river; and this method is peculiar during the rainy season, as then all kinds of seeds and fruits fall in the water from the trees on the margin, and the fish crowd to the sides to devour them.

In the dry season the fish leave the sides, and are only caught with hook and line in the deeps, except at the falls, where they are shot as they pass and repass.

* The Caribs alone prefer open land for their habitations, the other nations dwell chiefly in the covered retreats of the forests. Though warlike, they are fond of cultivating land, and disposed to traffic.

† Vide *Vegetable Kingdom* for a description of the plan of poisoning the waters, and intoxicating the fish with the hai-arry.

The Warows, inhabiting the Pomeroon coast from Morocco Creek to the Oronoque, are a nation of boat-builders. They are about seven hundred in number, and derive considerable emolument from the sale of their canoes and corials. It is most extraordinary that a maritime nation like ours should, up to this time, have paid no attention whatever to the peculiar and appropriate qualifications of the Warows.

The mora furnishes excellent crooked timbers, of any dimensions, and the silvabally is, beyond all known woods, incomparable for planking ships' bottoms, being almost impervious to the worm, light, and easily worked. With such materials, and such workmen, as a little instruction would make the Warows, Mr. Hillhouse thinks a dock-yard might be established in Pomeroon, adequate to the repairs of all our cruisers in these seas, and at a comparatively trifling expense.

The large canoes and corials made by the Warows have been known to carry one hundred men and a three-pounder. They are constructed on the best model for speed, elegance, and safety, without line or compass, and without the least knowledge of hydrostatics; they have neither joint nor seam, plug nor nail, and are an extraordinary specimen of untaught natural skill. These crafts are almost exclusively monopolized by the Spaniards, who, according to the above-named authority, do not scruple to take them by force, wherever they find them, at their own price, though made within the British boundary.* They fit them out as launches, and in this state they are admirably adapted for privateering, and even piracy. This practice ought, certainly, to be prevented, as it is both our interest and duty to protect the property of the Warows within our territory, and the craft itself is highly useful for colonial purposes.†

The Warows frequently hire themselves as sailors in the

* I trust this system has been put a stop to. R. M. M.

† Of late years, the Warows have suffered dreadfully from measles and small-pox, which last, Mr. Hillhouse says, has been entirely owing to the neglect of their protectors, in not spreading the *vaccine virus* at a time when the other tribes were saved by the inoculation.

colony crafts; and, in the Oronoque, they compose the majority of the crews of the feluccas and launches. They speedily acquire a practical knowledge of navigation; and, being expert fishermen, soon become good sailors, and consequently are ill adapted for land service.

My informant says they are drunken, quarrelsome, and insubordinate, and have little taste for agriculture—their food being principally fish, of which they will devour, at a meal, sufficient for three moderate Europeans; and they will ally themselves indiscriminately to whites, negroes, or mulattos.

Like their European sea brethren, they would become rich from their trade in corials, but that they soon dissipate the gains of their industry. One month they will be seen gaily dressed, and elevated with good living, and the next they will be starving, and working harder than any slaves, in the formation of craft, for a fresh supply. This improvidence, however inconvenient to themselves, is, nevertheless, capable of being turned to good account by an intelligent Government, and becomes an unceasing spur to their industry.

The climate being peculiarly sultry on their strictly-wooded coast, is also particularly infested with musquitoes. To remedy these inconveniences, they smear themselves profusely with the oil of the carapa, and this renders their skins so dark, that, but for their hair, they might be mistaken frequently for yellow-skinned negroes.

The eta tree (mauritia) is the grand succedaneum of, and is almost adored by, the Warows (as the cocoa nut is by the Maldive fishermen in the Indian Ocean). The fruit tastes like cheese, and is eaten with the pith, manufactured into a kind of cake of the consistency of sago. The young leaf is woven into hammocks, ropes, and baskets. The old leaf thatches the house. The trunk, split up, encloses it, and makes the floor. The pith of the large arm of the leaf, split longitudinally, makes a sail for the corial; and, by raising the fibres of the arm, and placing a bridge under, they make a rude kind of viol, to the music of which they dance.

They barbacot* and salt great quantities of the querry-man, *(genus mugil,)* with which they traffic on the coast, and sometimes as far as town.

The Warows, though deficient in the requisite qualifications for service by land, are yet equally valuable with the other nations, as they occupy a tract of land otherwise uninhabitable, and thus form a barrier to the emigration of fugitives westward. In their present neglected state, their point of peculiar excellence is overlooked, and of no advantage to us; but there is no doubt that, at some future day, we shall find it necessary to husband them with our other neglected resources; and the benefit to be derived from so doing is manifest.

The Macousi. These Indians are little known. Dr. Hancock, whose extensive knowledge of Guyana is highly appreciated, says, he found the Macousi a very numerous tribe, inoffensive and hospitable, and more industrious and provident than their neighbours, and the only tribe, excepting the Accawai and distant Torumas, independent of the Caribs, whose warlike spirit and rapacity have almost annihilated the other tribes. Dr. H. says, that they are continually subject to civil broils, by reason of the strange custom of selling their own people, and even relations, as slaves. When a Macousi dies, his wife and children are at the disposal of the elder surviving brother, who may sell or kill them at his pleasure. Mr. Hillhouse says, they are timid, taciturn, obedient, and tolerably industrious; but deficient in stature and personal strength, being of a yellower cast than the Accawai, whom otherwise they somewhat resemble. Having

* Amongst all the tribes of Indians, the virtues of the pyroligneous acid has been acknowledged from time immemorial. There being many kinds of meat that will not imbibe salt with sufficient rapidity in this climate to prevent speedy putrefaction, they prepare a stage, under which they make a clear wood fire, and laying fish, flesh or fowl upon the stage, twelve hours' smoking will preserve it for several weeks. This is called 'barbacoting.'

little courage, they resort to artifice in self-defence, and they have the general character of poisoners and assassins.

PARAMUNI—ATTARAYA—ATTAMACKA. These three nations, with several others, reside far in the interior, and are little known. They may be called mountaineers, and have all the propensities peculiar to highlanders, being always at war, or engaged in predatory expeditions.

All the information we possess concerning them is derived from the Accawai, who sometimes purchase their slaves; but they are described by them to be warlike and ferocious, and determined against the admission of any white person into their country. However true this may be, it is certain that no European has ventured yet beyond their boundary; and even the accounts given of them by the fathers of the missions, are equally founded on report alone. It is remarkable, that even these Indians, who are, undoubtedly, the most likely to incur the charge, have never been suspected or accused by the other nations of cannibalism; and Mr. Hillhouse asserts that, in all his transactions with the different tribes, he has never met with any trace or fact to justify such a supposition. It is true the Caribisce make flutes of the thigh-bones of their enemies; but they abhor the idea of either eating their flesh or drinking their blood, and this abhorrence is general.

There are six protectors of Indians in British Guyana, under whom are six postholders and assistants, on the different rivers. The postholders receive each £158 a year and a house; their assistants each £72 per annum. The protector's duty is to overlook that of the postholders in the performance of their duties, to endeavour to make peace between the Indian tribes when at war, and to transmit quarterly returns to the Lieutenant-Governor. They receive no salary, and are generally merchants and planters along the coast. The postholders are instructed to keep their posts or stations in good order—to attach the Indians to their posts—to prevent, as far as in them lies, quarrelling or fighting between the tribes—to obtain passes, signed by the

Lieutenant-Governor or Protector of Indians, from all persons passing the station, and to give in quarterly returns of all occurrences at their posts. It is to be feared that the lowness of the salary, and the want of vigilant superintendence by the chief authorities, have caused this otherwise excellent plan to be of little utility in practice.

I trust that these statements will have some effect in inducing attention to the state of the native aboriginal population in British Guyana.*

* According to the testimony of Mr. Hillhouse, who has resided in the West Indies for many years, the following is the scale of life or occupation of the year, from the line to the 20 of N. Lat. I give it as the production of an analytical mind, without vouching for its infallibility.

	Days of Labour.	Days of Idleness.	Days of Sickness.	Days of Drinking.	Days of Pleasure.	INFERENCES, REMARKS, and DESTINATION.
English ..	200	50	50	30	35	He generally keeps the Sabbath, and retires to Bath or Cheltenham a wealthy and superannuated invalid.
Scotch ..	268	..	50	50	..	Drinking his whiskey punch at night, and living otherwise poorly, to shine hereafter in Auld Reekie.
Irish ..	200	..	50	50	65	Werk-en-Rust.†
French ..	200	..	40	10	115	He buys a title and estate in Flanders, or dies from drinking sour claret.
Dutch ..	225	20	20	100	..	He drinks drams, from sun-rise to breakfast, systematically—and modifies the miasma without detriment to his business or constitution.
German ..	275	..	20	50	20	A Lordship on the Rhine.
Spaniard ..	100	100	20	10	135	Attached to the soil, from whence he never removes.
Mulatto ..	100	100	50	65	50	A premature death from drunkenness or its consequences, united to the evils of constant poverty and want.
Mestize ..	100	125	25	50	65	
Indian ..	90	150	50	50	25	
Free Negro..	50	150	20	50	95	Dies at an advanced age from want.
Negro Slave .	250	30	25	10	50	After ten or fifteen years of invalided ease, he dies of old age having never known want.

If the European attains independence, his constitution is so much shattered that he is unable to enjoy it. The life of the Creole Spaniard appears the pleasantest—and that of the Negro Slave of the best moral and political tendency.

The intemperance of the European is frequent, but not excessive or of long duration—but of the others, though seldom indulged in, it is more prolonged and desperate.

† The Burial Ground.

Language. The principal language in British Guyana is, of course, English; but the Dutch colonists still keep up, as much as possible, a knowledge of their mother tongue, which is the more necessary, as many of their hereditary rights and deeds of property are in that language. The negroes speak (as is the case in all our *ci-devant* slave colonies) a mixed jargon of English and African words, according to the part of the coast from whence they emanate. Of the language of the Arrawaaks, Accawai, Caribisce, &c. little seems to be known; and the dialects of the Indian nations east of the Andes appear not to have been known even by the profound Humboldt. An extraordinary dissimilarity is observable between the languages and dialects of the natives of Mexico and Peru, and those of British Guyana and the whole east coast of the South American continent—as much so, indeed, as between the Indians of Canada and the other northern states, when compared with those of the southward. The Indians of Guyana do not appear to have any hieroglyphical characters to express their ideas, nor, though possessing a rude knowledge of astronomy, any symbolic almanac, as their brethren on the west of the Andes have. Owing to the great variety of animated nature and of the vegetable kingdom, the language of the Indians is extremely copious. Mr. Hillhouse, to whom I am indebted for the following vocabulary of the four principal nations in British Guyana, says, that the Arrawaak has at least some claim to harmony and expression.*

Whether the whole of the languages spoken on the east side of the Andes be not merely dialects of the principal language (Caribisce), is worth consideration. Mr. Hillhouse thinks that the Caribisce, Arrawaak, and Warow, all materially differ in their composition, and never run into each other; while the similarity between the tongues of the Caribs and

* The Lord's Prayer in the Arrawaak language is thus given by Mr. Hillhouse:—Kururumanny—haamary caleery eboraady—bachooty deweet boossa—baynae parocan bayin so pareeka—yahaboo ororoo adiako—meheracheh beyn dacotooniah—Ebehey nebehedow wakayany odomay—Mayera toonebah dayensey—Boboro talidey.—*Hedouaney.*

Accaways is accounted for by the former calling the latter a brother nation, as the English would do the Americans. With the view of stimulating further inquiry, I give the annexed

Vocabulary of Eighty-two Nouns and Numerals in the Four Indian Languages of British Guyana.

Note.—Where the Accaway and the Caribisce are exactly the same, one is omitted. The vowels have mostly the broad accent.

ENGLISH.	ARRAWAAK.	ACCAWAI.	CARIBISCE.	WAROW.
Man,	Wadeely,	Weenow,		Neebooroo.
Woman,	Hearoo,	Eboocetey,	Woorey,	Teeda.
Boy,	Elunchy,	Weenofutoonoh,	Meh,	Noboto.
Girl,	Headaaza,	Yemooricoh,	Yemooroh,	Annebacka.
Old Man,	Habettoo,	Tompoco,		Edamoo.
Old Woman,	Daaca Tay,	Wabotorey,	Peepeh,	Natweet.
Brother,	Dalookeytchey,	Sayowa,	Seewoh,	Daheyey.
Sister,	Dayoodaata,	Yeynootey,	Wahwah,	Daakooey.
Uncle,	Dadayinchy,	Yaaooh,	Yaawooh,	Daatoo.
Aunt,	Daarey,	Waapoh,		Daakatey.
Cousin,	Daooenchy,	Baatomoh,		Hesenga.
Grandfather,	Dadookootchy,	Taamoh,	Taamcoh,	Nobo.
Grandmother,	Daacootuh,	Peepeh,		Naatu.
Grandchild,	Daalekenchy,	Eupaarey,		Naatoosenga.
Head,	Daaseye,	Eupopo,	Eubooboh,	Maquaw.
Neck,	Daanooroo,	Yewasacorooey,	Yenasally,	Mahaabey.
Eyes,	Daaconsy,	Yenooroo,		Maamu.
Nose,	Daseery,	Yenatarry,		Mayhecaddy.
Mouth,	Daleeroko,	Eubotarry,	Endarry,	Maroho.
Hair,	Dabarra,	Eyunsettey,	Eusettey,	Maaheo.
Ears,	Dadeehy,	Paanarrey,		Mahohoko.
Arms,	Daadenaina,	Yaboorey,		Mahaara.
Hands,	Daacabboo,	Yeynarroo,	Yenarry,	Maanauhoo.
Fingers,		Yeynaroo-seeteireh,	Yenarry eteedeh,	Mamuhoo.
Bones,	Daaboonah,	Yehpoh,		Moohu.
Skin,	Daada,	Eupeekpoh,		Mahoro.
Flesh,	Daseeroquaw,	Paacah,	Eubonoh,	Matoomuh.
Back,	Dahaborooh,	Yaaboob,	Enganarry,	Maahuh.
Belly,	Daadeybayou,	Youemboo,	Euenboh,	Moboonuh.
Breast,	Dalouasebou,	Epopoorah,	Epoboroh,	Maameyhoo.
Thighs,	Dabookeesa,	Eupatooh,	Eupeeteh,	Marolo.
Legs,	Dadaanah,	Eusairuh,	Euseedeh,	Maahah.
Feet,	Daacooty,	Eubobooruh,	Pobooroh,	Moomoo.
Blood,	Cooreesa,	Mooenooroh,		Hotuh.
Fire,	Ikhe-kee,	Waatuh,		Ikkoonuh.
Wind, Air,	Awadoolcy,	Pepeytoh,		Ahaaka.
Water,	Wunney-yabbo,	Toonah,	Tooniah,	Ho.
Earth,	Ororoo,	Eetoh,		Hotah.
Sky,	Ororaroo, Casaako,	Caaboh,		Nahaamootuh.
Bow,	Semaara-haaba,	Ooreybah,		Ataboroo.
Arrow,	Semaara,	Poolewah,		Ataboo.
Bow-string,	S. h. Teemy,	Labarey omooteh,	Ooreybah amooteh,	A. Ahootuh.
Hammock,	Daacorah,	Eubaatey,		Hah.
House,	Baacheh,	Yeowteh,		Hanooko.
Corial,	Coriaal,	Coorisala,		Wayeybacka.
Paddle,	Nahaaley,	Abagoeta,		Haaheh.
Buck-Pot,	Dawadda,	Toomayeng,	Toomaany,	Hahluh.
Knife,	Eadawalla,	Mareea,		Daabo.
Hook,	Bodeyhey,	Kehweey,	Kuhweh,	Osceebokay.
Calabash,	Eweedah,	Quahey,		Matalu.
Club,	Moosey,	Eubodooroh,	Pooduh,	Dooseh.
Beads,	Coraara,	Casooroh,		Naascey.

ENGLISH.	ARRAWAAK.	ACCAWAI.	CARIBISCE.	WAROW.
Cloth,.. ..	Caremarry, ...	Tebooroh, ..	Cameesa, ..	Heakaarah.
Sugar, ..	Secaruco, ...	Asekara, ..		Secaramutuh.
Salt, ...	Pamoo, ...	Waaeyu, ..		Bam.
Pepper, ..	Haatchey, ...	Pooeymuy, ..	Poomeh, ..	Hooka.
Gun, ...	Aracaboosa,.. ..	Arakoobsa, ..		
Powder, ..	Culbara, ...	Culbara, ..		Henehbwah.
Shot, ...	Bala, ...	Peeroto, ..	Beerotoh,..	A. Amu.
Tobacco, ..	Yeury, ...	Taamooy, ..	Taamuh, ..	Aoha.
Sun, ...	Hadalley, ...	Weeyeyu, ..		Yah.
Moon, ..	Kaatchey, ...	Noonoh, ..		Waaeshuh.
Stars,..	Weewah, ...	Eeremah, ..	Seereguh,..	Koorah.
Rain,.. ..	Wunney, ...	Konobo, ..		Naahaa.
Wind,..	Awadooley,.. ..	Pepeytoh, ..	Beybeytuh,	Ahaaka.
Thunder, ..	Acoollia cally, ..	Gonomaru, ..		Nahaa.
Lightning, ..	Beylebeleero, ..	Cabeyta, ..		Abeylebeyleh.
Hills, ...	Ororoo-Ayumuntuh,	Wooeybooey, ..	Wooboh, ..	Hotaquay.
Woods, ..	Konoko, ...	Eetoh, ...		Daunah.
Rocks, ..	Seeba, ...	Toeboh,.. ..		Hoeyu.
Sand,.. ..	Murtooko, ...	Sacow, ...		Kahemrah.
Islands, ..	Kai-eery, ...	Paah-oh, ..	Paahuh, ..	Bulohoh.
One, ...	Abaaru, ...	Tegeenah, ..		Hesacha.
Two, ...	Beama, ...	Asagreh, ..		Monamu.
Three,.. ..	Caboolin, ...	Osorwoh, ..		Deeanamu.
Four, ...	Bee-y-beech, ..	Asagreyney, ..		Munebee-nahatakanuh.
Five, ...	Aba-dacabbo, ..	Tegeneh seh, ..		Mahabass.
Six, ...	Aba temainy, ..	Meah daroy, ..		Mohomatuna-hesecka.
Seven, ..	Beama temainy, ..	Yacombeh, ..		———— Manam.
Eight,.. ..	Caboolin temain, ..	Tosorwa-nobeh,		———— Deeanamu.
Nine, ...	Beeybeech temain,	Yacombeh-nelly		———— Nahatakanuh.
Ten, ...	Beama dacabbo, ..	Yuma-cawuh,..		Mooreycooyt.

RELIGION, EDUCATION, AND THE PRESS.—Throughout the West India Colonies considerable efforts have been made by the local governments and legislatures, for several years back, to promote religion and education; and by none more so than Guyana; in Demerara and Essequibo (independent of Berbice) there are attached to the Established Church of England, seven rectors and one curate; to the Church of Holland, two ministers; to the Church of Scotland, five ministers; and to the Roman Catholic Church, two priests; twelve catechists, or schoolmasters, one being attached to each parish church of the English and Scotch persuasion; besides four schools in George Town for free boys and girls, and slave boys and girls, to which there are two masters and two mistresses. The annual sum paid to the clergymen,* catechists, schoolmasters and mistresses, from the colonial fund, amounts to 135,450 guilders, equal to about £10,000; in addition to this

* The fixed salaries, independent of contingents and the rectors, are 6000 guilders, or £500. sterling a year:—the Roman Catholic clergyman is placed on the same footing as the clergy of the Established Church, or those of the Dutch or Scotch persuasion.

sum, there have been expended, between the years 1824 and 1831, upwards of 350,000 guilders, equal to about £26,000, on the building of churches and parsonages; independently of which, large sums have voluntarily been contributed by individuals for that purpose. On the estimate for the year 1832, a sum of 200,725 guilders, equal to £14,337, was placed for the support of the establishment for that year alone.

Let it be remembered that these expenses are borne solely by the inhabitants, by taxes levied on them by the Court of Policy, combined with the financial representatives of the community. In Berbice there were, in 1831, three places of worship capable of holding 1,000 persons; and the usual congregation is 800. There are two public or free schools, with 155 male and 147 female scholars.

The press has made as much progress as could be expected in a community where the cultivation of the land and proportion of its products forms the chief object of men's attention.

There are two well conducted newspapers, a very good almanac, the printing of which would not be discreditable to a London typographer; and several local works printed in Demerara shew that the mighty engine of civilization, by which I trust its blessings will be extended and perpetuated, is making progress on the continent of South America.

Among the English Colonists the Episcopalian is the principal creed, and each parish has its rector, under the diocese of Barbadoes; the Dutch have their Lutheran church and minister, the Romish their chapel and minister, all paid (as I before said) and supported by the colony; and there are several active and useful missionaries endeavouring to instil Christianity into the negro population. Of the creed of the Indians we know little. Mr. Hillhouse says that they acknowledge the existence of a superior divinity, the universal Creator; and most tribes also believe in a subservient power, whose particular province is the protection of their nation. Amongst the Arawaaks, Aluberi is the supreme being, and Kururumanny the god or patron of the Arawaak nation.

Woorecaddo and Emehsewaddo are the wives of Kururu-

manny—one signifying a worker in darkness, and the other the couchy, or large red ant, that burrows in the earth; together, they are typical of the creation of all things out of the earth in the dark.

The Caribisce and Accawai call their god Maconaima, also signifying one that works in the dark. Their idea of the creation is, that coeval with Maconaima was a large tree, and that, having mounted this tree, with a stone axe he cut pieces of wood, which, by throwing into the river, became animated beings. The details of this tradition are nearly as absurd and obscene as the mythology of the Hindus—they are, however, sufficiently indicative of the acknowledgement of a supreme being. Mr. Hillhouse thinks the Indians have, undoubtedly, a religious principle amongst them; but, as they have no priesthood, and no form of worship, it degenerates, as with all ignorant minds, into superstition and a belief in magic. I learn from Dr. Hancock that the Accaways are in perpetual fear of evil spirits, whom they consider night murderers, that continually lie in wait to entrap and destroy them; the Accaways are in fact real vassals to a fancied dæmonocracy.

The great and just Creator is believed to be incapable of wantonly afflicting the works of his hands; and, as his power and unearthly nature places him above the requisition of services from mortals, they conceive that prayers or adoration are superfluous—his will being independent of the wants or caprices of mankind. They laugh at the idea of the supreme power being propitiated by the supplications of individual interest, because they say he is supremely just, and that if he hears the prayer of one, he is bound to hear all; and, as the interests of one individual are always interfering with the interests of others, so, to prevent unjust precedence, he will be influenced by no supplications, but execute his own will, without deigning to consult that of mortals.

The Indians of the Spanish missions of the Oronoque, who are of the same nation as ours, believed, that the object of the fathers in confessing, was to obtain a knowledge of their

pecuniary means, in order to lay them under more effectual contribution. As to absolution, they thought the idea of a delegation of such a power to mortals, was too absurd to be worthy even of dispute; but they readily, from their belief in magic, subscribed to the virtues of the rosary, beads, amulets, and relics. Matins, vespers, and houris, were considered as incantations, and efficacious in expelling the evil spirit; and to this hour, the Spanish Indians of the Orinoco, who all wear the cross, and denominate themselves "good Catholics," chaunting their services morning and evening, have no other idea of a religious principle, than that the performance of these ceremonies gives them a charmed existence.

It is true these Indians are more sober and industrious than any of ours; but this arises from the circumstance of their having been long congregated in towns and villages, and subjected to the municipal guardianship of the local authorities. The Spanish missions evidently began at the wrong end—but, even under this great disadvantage, the Indians slowly improved under their care, from the example of their regularity and discipline, and an exemplification of the superior comforts of a state of society.

The evil spirit is believed to be the author of all the miseries that afflict humanity: every idea of terror is attached to this power of darkness; and the pe-i-man, who claims the qualification of an exorcist, is regarded with the greatest consequent reverence and respect. The ascendancy exercised by the pe-i-man, can only be compared to that of the Pope, or of a Catholic priest. All attempts, therefore, at conversion, must be utterly futile, except the pe-i-man himself be made an interested party.

In the present circumstances, the pe-i-man derives all his power and authority from the conviction of his supernatural agency; and he moreover derives all his subsistence from the contributions levied on the credulity of the ignorant. This is so truly monkish, that the bad success of the latter need no longer to be wondered at—'Two of a trade never agree.'

To convert the Indians, the pe-i-man must first be made

sensible that his change of creed will more amply fill his own pockets. To individuals only alive to self-interest (and these form a vast majority in all communities), that religion is always the best which is most in favour of pecuniary emolument. At present, a puncheon of rum, and a few beads or clothes, would convert more Indians than all the holy water that was ever consecrated. It would be therefore highly imprudent, in the present unprepared state of the Indians, to make religious instruction the first object. There is little doubt that a missionary, more zealous than prudent, would, at this moment, soon receive at their hands the crown of martyrdom; and one such occurrence would retard their conversion for ages. The slower, yet more certain, medium of association and example, is infinitely preferable. Pageantry, show, and ceremony, have little influence, except as employed for magical purposes; nor will they respect a priesthood that is not endowed with the most palpable mental superiority.

In the foregoing remarks, I perfectly agree with Mr. Hillhouse.* The Moravian missionaries would be the most efficient converts of the Indians of Guyana.

GAOLS, &c. In Demerara and Essequibo, the number of persons confined for debt, in 1831, was three; for misdemeanors, sixty-five males and thirty-five females; for felonies, three males and one female. There is but one prison, and it is capable of containing two hundred and seventy-three prisoners. In Berbice, there is one prison, suited for fifty prisoners; and, in 1831, there were therein twelve males for misdemeanors, and one female for ditto; four males for felonies, and no debtors.

STAPLE PRODUCTS. Sugar, rum, coffee, and cotton, form the principal articles of growth and export. The following return, given on oath, shews the production of Demerara and Essequibo for three periods of three years each:—

In the first period (1823, 1824, and 1825), 213,478,633 lbs.

* It is one out of many lamentable instances of the neglect which talent and enterprize meets with from the British Government, when we find such men as Hillhouse and Hancock unhonoured and unknown.

(Dutch*) sugar; 17,779,473 lbs. coffee; 6,808,913 lbs. cotton. In the second (1826, 1827, and 1828), 239,556,975 lbs. (Dutch) sugar; 13,897,083 lbs. coffee; 7,389,373 lbs. cotton. In the third (1829, 1830, and 1831), 262,709,559 lbs. (Dutch) sugar; 7,059,431 lbs. coffee; 2,252,557 lbs. cotton.

It will be seen from the foregoing, that, while coffee and cotton cultivation has diminished, sugar has increased. We have no returns for Berbice; there, however, the production of coffee and sugar has increased. The following is a consecutive return of the

Produce of Demerara and Essequibo.

	DEMERARA.					ESSEQUIBO.				
Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses	Coffee.	Cotton.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses	Coffee.	Cotton.
	lbs.	gal.	gal.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	gal.	gal.	lbs.	lbs.
1810	9,222,659	471,365	..	19,248,210	5,821,776	13,349,590	600,340	..	2,269,926	1,293,632
2	13,351,979	815,131	..	6,167,289	4,322,453	16,317,354	843,035	..	687,134	399,711
3	13,597,072	847,081	..	2,951,555	2,408,265	16,758,414	843,286	..	614,149	267,585
4	12,780,282	722,146	..	7,431,926	5,494,416	18,526,224	955,523	..	919,585	529,481
5	18,657,091	965,012	..	8,270,432	3,844,690	21,865,329	1,026,806	..	1,586,843	560,298
6	19,866,713	898,009	..	11,254,206	3,393,980	24,246,068	1,058,886	..	602,411	426,532
7	22,787,125	946,106	522,988	5,870,418	3,846,889	30,462,555	1,169,161	547,151	935,454	536,048
8	24,037,418	1,025,032	501,068	9,855,717	4,498,591	30,095,438	1,283,389	437,121	818,827	584,683
9	33,009,248	1,445,465	526,252	3,033,310	2,485,483	33,781,912	1,356,558	485,499	440,990	228,502
20	35,128,107	1,679,031	333,351	4,160,133	2,266,273	35,467,584	1,551,917	407,687	278,778	150,250
1	30,855,407	1,433,574	306,572	9,898,207	2,482,127	31,279,222	1,284,238	315,200	709,359	322,499
2	32,023,713	1,390,667	525,266	6,437,881	3,543,514	33,025,734	1,336,067	574,017	382,455	162,445
3	36,962,174	1,265,035	1,123,667	5,986,435	2,065,957	37,859,359	1,152,981	1,117,376	391,588	178,161
4	34,930,396	1,093,931	1,379,166	4,735,531	1,874,147	34,422,882	1,027,721	1,137,526	255,958	175,168
5	31,631,781	1,053,393	1,311,014	6,059,099	2,297,041	37,672,941	1,014,755	1,459,596	359,862	218,439
6	33,001,815	1,204,163	1,333,284	2,579,422	2,527,261	37,101,378	1,144,580	1,162,057	193,074	273,903
7	42,025,893	1,337,267	1,495,326	5,121,773	2,558,767	42,431,339	1,309,191	1,524,898	255,723	111,406
8	42,552,390	1,371,398	1,456,536	5,415,699	1,562,400	42,444,161	1,275,907	1,436,785	331,392	355,636
9	46,357,180	1,810,005	1,113,148	4,450,123	1,127,471	45,295,151	1,579,734	1,175,589	105,666	89,798
30	46,451,553	2,068,028	1,167,537	1,274,177	546,700	43,220,224	1,908,992	978,374	52,981	67,950
31	46,504,202	2,030,190	1,607,510	1,449,292	379,068	34,831,249	1,514,608	1,289,036	27,192	41,270
32										
33										

There are many other articles to which I hope the attention of the colonists will be turned. I would suggest opium as likely to succeed, and yield a large profit; tobacco also, if we can get the duty reduced in England on the colonial product, would be found advantageous.

According to Mr. Peter Rose,† of Demerara, the following

* 112lbs. Dutch = 112lbs. 4oz. Avoirdupois.

† Evidence before W. I. Parliamentary Committee.

is the cost of producing 10,769 cwt. of sugar, and 58,334 gallons of rum, on an estate in the best part of Demerara, with five hundred negroes, or workmen, on it:—Salt fish, £677. 1*s.*; clothing, £750; plaintains purchased, £1,143; coals and sugar hogsheads, £1,205; drogherage, £300; salaries, medical attendance, and taxes, £1,500; pork, rice, port wine, bricks, lime, timber, lumber, nails, temper-lime, lamp oil, tar, pitch, cordage, cane punts, &c. £1,096; machinery, implements (employed in the manufacture of sugar and rum), repairs of buildings, negro houses, &c. £1,000; insurance on buildings, £248;—total, £7,919. 1*s.* Cost of production: 10,769 cwt. sugar, at 12*s.*, £6,461. 8*s.*; 58,334 gallons rum, at 6*d.* per gallon, £1,458. 7*s.*;—total, £7,919. 15*s.* These calculations are without reference to the invested capital: this estate cost the proprietors £120,000 sterling.

I give the foregoing statement that it may serve for future comparison with a system of free labour.

Vegetable Kingdom. It will be observed from the preceding section, that sugar and coffee are the chief vegetable products of Guyana. Did space and time permit, it might be readily shown that no part of the earth is richer in vegetation than Guyana. The most careless observer is struck with astonishment on beholding the magnificent forests and splendid verdure of the South American continent, where every variety of timber flourishes in inexhaustible profusion, and each dye and spice that ministers to commerce or health, scarcely requires the industry of man for its production. Those majestic trees, the wallaba, silvabali, bulletre, and purple heart, whose stems are straight and branchless for seventy feet, and then crowned with splendid foliage, are abundant in various parts of the colony; but, as the vegetation of all our West India possessions is pretty much alike, and the productions similar to those of the main land, I will here give a detail of the forest trees which, though prepared at first for the island of Dominica, may, with equal propriety, be given under the head of Guyana for the purpose of saving repetition. The commercial reader will perceive what an advantageous timber

trade we may carry on with our West India colonies, if the import duty be reduced, or, as I hope, finally removed from colonial timber. The timber of British Guyana is extremely valuable for ship-building. Among the numerous varieties of wood, may be mentioned the *Mora* (mimosa), equal to East India teak, and superior to oak,—it is not subject to dry-rot; the green heart, a very fine-grained hard wood; the purple heart, also possessing the same qualities; the white cedar; and the locust, or coubarre, &c. The following is a description of the different sorts of timber trees, shrubs, plants, &c. natural to our West India possessions, with their qualities, and the purposes for which they are best adapted.

The *Black cinnamon* is generally found about fifty feet in height and two feet in diameter, and delighting in arid and barren soils. The leaves are about the size of those of the orange tree, which they also resemble in fragrance. When fresh cut, the wood is of a deep blood red, but in time becomes quite black; it is very durable, takes a fine polish, and, from its hardness and smoothness of surface, peculiarly adapted for mill cogs, wheels, and other purposes, where its great weight is not an objection.

There is an inferior sort, called the *White cinnamon* (from its wood being of a lighter colour), only valuable for its leaves and berries, which possess an aromatic pungent smell and a powerful spicy quality, and is esteemed an excellent substitute for the East India cinnamon.

The *Acoucoa* generally grows very crooked, seldom exceeding eight or ten inches in diameter, and is chiefly made use of for posts; for which purpose, on account of its extreme durability, it is valuable,—most other W. I. woods decaying quickly when exposed to moisture.

The *Locust tree* is often found eight or nine feet in diameter, and upwards of seventy feet in height; the branches begin to spread in the highest parts of the tree, and are very full of leaves of an oval shape, and a dark green colour, about three inches in length; the blossoms are of the papilonaceous form, with a long flat pod, shaped like the husk of a broad

bean, about four inches long, of a strong texture, and a dark brown colour when ripe, containing three beans of the same colour, which are of a farinaceous consistence, and of a pleasant sweetness. The wood is a rich brown, intermixed with dark veins like marble, and takes a beautiful polish, for which reason it is chiefly used for the manufacture of furniture and articles of taste. It is very strong and durable, and therefore employed with advantage for rollers in sugar mills, &c.

The *Letter wood*, of a beautiful brown colour, mixed with black spots, bearing some resemblance to hieroglyphics, or letters; (from which circumstance it derives its name;) is chiefly made use of for walking canes, segar tubes, and other small articles. As the fine part of the wood is taken from the heart of the tree, which is seldom more than twelve inches in circumference, it is not available for work of any size, and therefore confined almost exclusively to the before mentioned purposes. It is about twenty feet in height, the leaves narrow and pointed, and the flower, which is pentapetalous, and of a purple colour, is succeeded by a red berry.

The *Ironwood tree* grows to the height of about fifty feet, and six in circumference; the bark is of a whitish grey, the leaves light green, and about three inches in length, and the flowers white, with red berries. It derives its name from its remarkable strength, but, as it is not durable when exposed to wet, the colonists generally employ it in the interior of their buildings.

The *Bollo* or *Bully tree*, usually found about fifty feet in height, and six in diameter, is covered with a smooth bark of a grey colour; the branches, which grow near the top of the tree, are commonly cut into shingles for covering buildings, being particularly compact and durable, (resisting even wet); and therefore very well adapted for house timber, and other purposes, where but few woods would be found answerable. The leaves are long, and become narrow towards the foot stalk; and the flower, consisting of five petals of a beautiful purple colour, is succeeded by blue berries.

The *Purple Heart tree*, so called from the beautiful colour

of its wood when dry, is about sixty feet in height, and two in diameter; the branches, like those of the preceding, grow very near the top of the tree; the leaves are of a dark green colour, about four inches in diameter; and the blossoms of a deep red, consisting of five petals, and succeeded by red berries, which contain the seeds. The wood is mostly used for furniture when new, on account of its durability, as well as beauty of colour; but as it gets old the colour darkens, so that at last it becomes as black as ebony.

The *Green Heart tree*, which, like the former, derives its name from its colour, and grows about the same size, is much esteemed for its durability, being of a close grain, very hard, and peculiarly adapted for ships' planking. It possesses the singular property of changing its foliage twice a year; the flowers are of a yellowish white, tetrapetalous, and are succeeded by a small farinaceous fruit, of which the Indians sometimes make bread, but of a very insipid taste.

The *Cope tree*, generally found about forty feet high, and eight feet in circumference, is divided into many branches, plentifully supplied with leaves about two inches in length, and of a light green colour. The bark, of a light gray or ash colour, is of a rough texture, the wood light, and easy to work, and chiefly employed for the manufacture of domestic furniture.

The *Silk Cotton tree* grows to the height of 100 feet, and twelve or fourteen in diameter, and is very much sought after by the Indians to make their largest canoes. Its roots spread along, on the surface of the ground, to the distance of from ten to fifteen feet; the trunk is covered with a thick, ash coloured bark, set with short sharp prickles: the branches, which do not begin to grow nearer to the ground than sixty feet, are full of oblong leaves about seven inches long. The blossom, which appears only once in three years, and consists of a green calyx, with five white folliculi, and the petals, with five stamina, is succeeded by a bud, containing a fine silky cotton, of a light grey colour, but being of too short a texture for the manufactories, it is made use of for stuffing mattresses,

&c. The humming birds are very fond of it (from its soft nature) to line their nests with.

The *Palisade tree*, the smallest species of palm, is principally used by the negroes for the side walls of their huts, or split into staves; the stalk being small upon which the seeds grow, is also used by them as a broom. The tree grows to the height of twelve or fifteen feet, and eight or nine inches in diameter, and produces a very fine cabbage.

The *Troolies* are chiefly employed for covering the roofs of buildings in the country. They are large leaves, twenty feet long, and two broad, of a strong texture, and straight fibres; growing from a small fibrous root, from which arise eight or ten stems, each producing a leaf of the above dimensions. They are very durable and well calculated for the above purpose.

The *Bois* Pian* is very good wood for house frames and sills, for which it is much used. The shingles made from it will last nearly as long as the best cypress. It is often found fifty feet in height, even when the diameter does not exceed a foot, which seldom extends to more than eighteen inches. The immense length renders it so springy, especially if sawed when green, that the process of sawing is very seldom attended with success, if adopted.

The *Bois Riviere* is seldom found far from the borders of rivers or streams, and generally on their edge. It is of very rapid growth, with roots running superficially. It is very heavy when green, but comparatively light when dry, in consequence of its parting with so much of its moisture; of which it imbibes a large quantity immediately when exposed to air. It is therefore evidently very porous, and liable to decay, if so exposed. Nevertheless, it is much used for rafters and other parts of buildings not exposed to wet, and answers the purpose very well in those places. It splits freely, and therefore is not fit to be used where timber of a tough grain is required. It is so tenacious of a nail that has en-

* French words in this description are accounted for by a part of it being drawn up for Dominica.

tered without splitting it that it is almost impossible to draw it, especially if left in the wood any length of time. It saws very smoothly, and will make good boards for many purposes.

Lauriere Caca, so called from its leaves resembling the laurel, is a very useful wood for various purposes, particularly for boards, being tolerably durable; or for flooring, sides of houses, &c. It reaches to the height of forty or fifty feet, and in diameter about eighteen inches, but seldom more than two feet. The wood has a very unpleasant smell, especially about the knotty parts, very like that of *stercum*; it goes off, however, as it dries, and is imperceptible when completely seasoned.

Bois Perdrix or *Sicard* is only found near the sea. It bears a large yellow plum of a sweet and sickly taste, and but seldom eaten by the least refined palate, although not hurtful.

Olivier, so called from its resemblance to the olive tree, is a very useful timber, and tolerably durable. It burns with difficulty, and is therefore often used for shingles, to cover roofs near chimnies, or otherwise contiguous to the fire.

The *Contrevint* is tall and straight, the timber likely to decay in damp places, but is sometimes used for beams, being very stiff and strong, but not durable. It makes good fire-wood.

Sea-side Grape is never found except near the sea-shore. The timber is very durable in every situation, and very heavy, but always so crooked that it can seldom be used in any valuable work. It bears a berry about the bigness of an olive, but quite round, of a beautiful damson colour, with a delicate down upon it, is very juicy and delicious, and much resembling the real grape in taste. The pulp which covers the kernel is the only eatable part, and does not exceed the eighth or sixteenth of an inch in thickness. The kernel has the appearance of the wallnut, but is of a harsh astringent taste, totally unfit for use. The fruit grows in long bunches, very much like the grape. It bears an immense quantity when in favourable situations: the leaves are large and nearly round, smooth and thick.

The *Bois Diable* is a native of the poorest, cold, and clayey soils and ridges. It grows to a great height, but never exceeds from two to three feet in diameter. Its shape is regular and straight, but unfortunately the timber is of the worst kind, and unfit for every thing but fire-wood, which it is peculiarly adapted for, as it burns extremely fierce, even when green, and lasts longer than any other wood for that purpose. It is of a deep blood red, and very hard; whether it derived its name from the latter quality, or its igneous property, is a question of very little importance, but it is most undoubtedly *devilishly* hard and hot. Its bark is thick, and of a very dark-green colour, with small white specks on little rigid eminences; the leaves small and pointed.

The *Sour Orange Tree* is too well known to need much description. The fruit is no less so, though perhaps not so much esteemed as it deserves. Independently of the common purposes for which it is used as an acid, it makes an excellent cooling beverage in fevers, particularly of the putrid kind, and unites with that quality those also of being both laxative and sudorific. The rind contains an extremely aromatic and inflammable oil, and when squeezed before the fire flashes like gunpowder; chipped small it is an excellent ingredient for puddings and confectionaries, and in the compositions of stomachic bitters.

The *Grigris* is very much in appearance like the Olivier, but very much inferior in quality, although it makes good beams and lasts a long time if not exposed to moisture. The greatest objection to it is its liability to warp and spring although seasoned ever so long. It is of a dark lead colour.

The *Boisseladame* varies in height from forty to sixty feet, and is about two feet six in diameter. The timber, though not particularly valuable, makes very good boards for various purposes. It is when new of a dull rose colour, and smells something like musk; the leaves are rather larger than a man's hand, and the bark approaches to orange colour.

Boisfourmi.—The ramiers, or wild pigeons, are very fond of the berries of this tree. It is of little value as a timber,

growing crooked, ramifying very much, and is generally covered over with tubercles, which afford shelter to the ants, with which this tree abounds; from this cause the name is derived.

The *Bois Jaune* derives its name from the colour of the wood, which is of a pale bright yellow when fresh cut. Although not of a very close texture it is useful for posts, which will remain sound ten or twelve years; and is also much used for oars, being light, straight, and elastic; and not cross grained.

The *White Cedar* is usually found near the sea shore, and thrives better to windward than to leeward, evidently on account of its receiving more of the saline particles in these situations. It is principally used for ship and boat building, especially for timbers, which it affords of all degrees of curvature, and in greater abundance than any other tree in this climate. It is also sawed into boards for planking vessels, being valuable for that purpose as it lasts a long while in the sea water, but decays soon in fresh water or damp situations. It shrinks less in drying than any other wood, and consequently swells less, which is a most favourable quality for the above-mentioned use. It is also very light when young, but brittle and almost useless when full grown, tough and cross grained. It grows very crooked and much ribbed in the trunk, especially near the root, which renders it difficult to get boards of any length out of it. Its leaves are oval, with three strong ribs, about six or eight inches long, when the tree is of luxuriant growth, and about five or six wide, but in general much less. In the months of June and July it bears a bell-flower, of a pale violet colour, with small yellow antheræ, becoming yellowish toward the stem, and is slightly odoriferous. The flower is succeeded by a long slender pod, containing some hundred seeds, which are very small and flat, lying close together, and much resembling parsnip seed, being of the papilonaceous kind, and are therefore carried to a great distance by the wind. The pod is about six inches long, and a large tree will bear several thousand of them. The tree grows

very rapidly, and stands to a great age. The colour of the wood darkens as the age of the tree increases.

The *Bois Anglois* is seldom found above a foot in diameter, and not lofty. The stem is round and smooth, the branches growing by regular stages and nearly horizontal, but slightly inclining upwards. From this circumstance the young stems are much used by the lower classes of people as a charm to stir pots, after having cut the diverging branches to a convenient length. This wood has a strong smell of musk, is very pliant, and much used for oars, staves, &c. but is too scarce (in Dominica) to supply them in sufficient number.

The *Bois Côte*, so called from its growing longitudinally ribbed throughout, is made use of for ordinary buildings as rafters or plates, but decays too soon to be employed for valuable work. It makes good fire-wood when quite dry. It grows between two or three feet in diameter, and is lofty for its size.

The *Gommier* derives its name from the gum, which exudes from it in great abundance, and is a very useful article to the inhabitants for various purposes. When fresh from the tree it is quite soft and sticky, but becomes hard and brittle by exposure. It burns fiercely, and is much used for torches, especially by the negroes to search by night for crapeaux,* which during the day remain silent and confined to their holes, from whence they issue at night, and by their croaking, guide the frog hunters to their abodes. This gum is a good substitute for tar when mixed with grease, although not equal to the resin from the fir tree, as it is apt to scale off sooner. It has an aromatic smell, but the smoke, which it yields in abundance, blackens every thing near, even the nostrils of those who inhale it, but it is not injurious to health. The wood is principally used for making canoes, on account of the singular property it possesses of expanding by heat; and is occasionally employed for other purposes, but principally for the former. The stem of the tree is generally round and

* The W. I. French, love frogs as well as the Parisians.

straight, and is usually found about sixty feet in height, and twelve in circumference.

The *Chatanier Grandfeuille* derives its name from the resemblance it bears to the chesnut tree. The shape of the stump is very remarkable, as it shoots out very wide and thin ribs, which begin to spread out at the height of eight or ten feet, and upwards, according to the size of the tree; so that a full-grown tree will sometimes spread its ribs at the surface of the ground so as to extend to one hundred and twenty feet in circumference, although the stem, where the ribs begin to diverge, may not be more than three feet in diameter, which, in fact, they seldom exceed. It is extremely lofty; the leaves are very large, of an oval shape, from twelve to eighteen inches long, and from eight to fourteen broad; the wood is very heavy, and held in little estimation. It is a native of low and rich soils. There is a smaller and inferior specimen of this tree found in high, ridgy, and poor soils.

The *Poix Doux* is of little value for its timber, being of an irregular shape, very small, and the branches beginning near the surface of the ground, and having, therefore, scarcely any stem. The wood besides is of a most inferior quality; but it is extremely valuable as a fence to the coffee bushes, to which plant it is particularly congenial. The careful coffee planter plants them very near, with no greater interval than six or eight rows of coffee trees between them. The fences are planted both up and down and horizontally, on the sides of the hills, forming squares, like a chess board, and looking very beautiful in a well-cultivated and fruitful coffee estate. These fences are generally lopped and trimmed alternately every other year, leaving the intermediate fence as a protection until the last cut one can acquire strength to shelter the coffee bushes. These dismembered branches and leaves are considered very useful as a manure to prevent the growth of grass. It is of quick growth, and suffers no injury from these repeated croppings. It is remarkable that the coffee trees which grow nearest to the Poix Doux are always the

finest, and outlive by many years those that are at a distance; indeed, it may be called the patron of the coffee tree.*

Branda. The wood of this tree is mostly used for beams and stanchions, and answers very well for that purpose when it is not much exposed. It springs a great deal when sawed green, grows tall and straight, and seldom exceeds two feet in diameter.

Bois Sept Ans, so called, it is presumed, from its duration not exceeding seven years, and that too must be under favourable circumstances. It is seldom otherwise used than by being sawed into boards for the most common purposes. It answers very well as heading for sugar casks, and is light and porous, and therefore evidently unfit for durability. Being common, and easily worked, it is often resorted to where better kinds cannot be had, or are too expensive. It has a moderate large leaf, and grows in superficial soil.

Bois Violon. It is difficult to give a sufficient reason for its being so called, unless its great levity may be considered so. It generally grows straight and tall, and about twenty or twenty-four inches in diameter. It is frequently made use of for masts for small vessels; but is incapable of bearing any great strain, and seldom for that or any other purpose, except from necessity. Its bark is of a very dark colour outside, and strips off freely, and sometimes serves for tying bundles. The wood is of a pale yellow, and smells, when green, exactly like the copariva juice, so much esteemed in medicine, and may probably be a species of the tree from which that liquid gum is extracted.

Bois Frai is a very singular tree, being hollow, with thin partitions at intervals of from three to four or five inches distance; the inner part with a thin integument, that hardens as the tree approaches to maturity: therefore, by the time the tree has arrived at its full growth, the hollowness almost

* The manuscript whence a great part of this description is derived, I found translated from a French account; the reader will probably, however, agree with me, that the information it conveys, compensates for imperfectness in literary or scientific composition.

disappears. From this hollowness it evidently derives its name. The wood is extremely light, which, added to these vacancies, render it peculiarly useful to suspend any heavy substance in the water. As a timber, it cannot be applied to any use; it grows from thirty to forty feet in height, with uncouth straggling branches. The young leaves grow in a very curious manner: before they expand, they are enclosed in a sheath, or spatha; when this bursts, the young leaf expands by degrees, of a beautiful pink colour inside, and white outside, which after being exposed to the rays of light, gradually becomes green. These are of the shape of the vine leaf, with more numerous and deeper sinuosities. They are nearly circular, each ray or division growing from six to ten inches from the leaf or stem; consequently the entire diameter, from point to point, is sixteen inches, but generally considerably less. The interior integument before mentioned is rather pulpy in the young and tender branches, and in that state is used as a styptic to staunch the bleeding of fresh wounds, &c. The outside of the young branches is green; but the bark turns white afterwards, as does the under part of the leaf, which causes the tree to present a beautiful appearance from the contrast it displays with the verdure of other trees.

Laurier Blanc is a species of the laurier,* of a white colour, from which boards are produced, of middling quality, for ordinary purposes; but not at all fitted for valuable work. The tree seldom exceeds thirty feet in height, and twenty inches in diameter. The outer bark is of a deep green, stained with whitish spots as large as the hand.

Mahaut Cochon is a native of moist and fresh soils, where it may sometimes be found sixty or seventy feet in height, and from three to four in diameter. It bears a large leaf with sinuosities, but not deeply indented. It is very abundant and much used for ordinary buildings, staves for sugar casks, shingles, &c. for which it is well adapted, as it splits free, is easily worked, light, and porous.

* *Vide* No. 12.

Rose Mahaut is a straggling tree, which never rises high, but the branches as they become heavy drop down to the ground by degrees, when they take root and shoot out other branches. The young saplings before they become too strong are cut down and stript of the bark, which is very useful for common ropes. It is moderately strong, and if the ropes are well manufactured and kept dry, they will last a long time. It bears a large round leaf, six or eight inches in diameter, of a deep green colour on the outer side, and of a whitish tint underneath; the timber is by no means valuable. It is found near running streams of fresh water, or on the sea shore.

Bara Bara is a middling sized tree, usually about twenty inches in diameter, and proportionally lofty, i. e. twenty or thirty feet high, the wood is seldom used for building, it being so very light and brittle. It bears an apple about the size of an English pippin, of a poisonous quality, which the Charibbean Indians use for poisoning fish, which latter do not however prove injurious to those who eat them.*

Savouette, so called from its forming a lather with water in the same manner with soap. The tree grows to a great size, but has a very small leaf, resembling the leaf of the Cassia Fistula. The wood is used for shingles, and boards for ordinary purposes, it has a strong smell of garlic when fresh cut.

Galba or Calba. This tree grows to the height of from twenty to twenty-five feet, and about fourteen or sixteen in diameter. The leaf is small and thick, and the wood is principally used for fences, posts, &c.

Bois d'Ail, so called from its strong smell of garlic. It grows tall and straight, and about twelve inches in diameter; the leaf is long and narrow. The timber is sometimes used for common roofs, but is not much employed, as it is not lasting, and subject to be worm eaten.

Boistan. The bark of this tree is much used for tanning

* The name of this tree, as well as of every other, when the same syllable is repeated, is Charib.

leather, from which the tree derives its name. It grows tall, straight, and about two feet in diameter, and is generally found in steep and craggy places. The wood is tough, and commonly used for boards, cart wheel naves, and other ordinary purposes. When full grown, the colour is of a deep red or blood-colour, and the bark very thick, and of the same colour inside.

Pommier, is a soft light wood very similar to the Gommier,* but of inferior quality, although occasionally used by the Caribs for canoes. The leaf is about the size of a man's hand, and of an oval shape.

Mangle or *Mangrove*† is a tree of singular structure, as it shoots fresh roots as it grows, which when the tree is at its full age, may be found six or eight feet from the ground; to which they gradually tend in regular succession. The timber is very heavy and of a free grain, and employed principally for the manufacture of fishing-rods, walking sticks, arrows, and other light purposes. It is not available for building as it soon decays. The leaf is very thick and stiff, and about eight inches long and nine wide. The tree seldom attains more than a foot in diameter, and fifteen or twenty feet in height. The leaves and bark yield a thick juice, which is very viscid and of a yellow colour.

Bois Blanc, derives its name from the colour of its wood; grows to a good size (about thirty inches in diameter) lofty and straight, of a free grain, and used principally for boards for ordinary purposes; although not durable, it is less likely to be worm-eaten than most of the soft woods, on account of its extreme bitterness, for which quality the bark may be used in the same manner as that of the Angelin,‡ and with less danger, as it is not so powerful as the former.

Bois Glue, so called from the gluey juice that exudes from the bark, on an incision being made in it. This juice thickens when exposed to the air, and is much used for bird-lime,

* *Vide* No. 26.

† Skirts the whole sea-coast of Guyana, and most low tropical shores.

‡ *Vide* No. 5.

which is, with the exception of fire-wood, the sole benefit derived from the tree. It grows tall and straight, and of a moderate size, and the leaf is six or eight inches long and two wide.

Bois Flat, or Cork-wood. From its very buoyant qualities this tree is thus called, and the wood is very available for fishermen's floats, turtle trammels, fish pots, &c. It is also employed for rafts, to convey heavy timber by water. It may usually be found about thirty feet in height, and twelve or fourteen inches in diameter; the leaves are rough and round, about twelve inches across. The bark is white, and strips off with facility, but has no strength. It has but few branches, which grow in a wild straggling manner; the pith, when dry, is very light and elastic, and may be pressed into a quarter of its original size, but upon the pressure being removed, it assumes its former shape and size.

Mastich. The timber of this tree is more durable than that of any before mentioned, very scarce, and only to be met with in a few places to leeward. It is of a brownish yellow colour, and very close grained and heavy. It is very valuable for shafts, and other parts of a water wheel, as it will resist moisture better than any other wood. It has an oily appearance, and will take a very fine polish. When decaying, it very slowly begins to be affected externally, so that after taking a part out of the ground half eaten through, the remainder will be as sound as the first day it was put in; seeming to wear away instead of rotting like other woods. There is also an inferior sort called the white mastich.

Guava (Psidum fructicosum). The fruit of this tree, which is common every where in the W. Indies, is justly esteemed as very agreeable, especially when preserved, or made into marmalade. The wood is tough, and used mostly for cattle crooks. The seeds of the fruit are considered a restringent medicine in some fluxes.

The foregoing detail demonstrates, as I before said, what a valuable timber trade may be carried on with our West India possessions; every one of the trees just mentioned might be adapted to a variety of useful purposes in England;

before quitting this subject a few more specimens of the vegetable kingdom of the Western hemisphere may be mentioned.

The *Agniero*, a species of palm, has the stem and branches covered with sharp ebony-like spines six inches long; it produces a fruit the size of a walnut, consisting of a slimy substance; the stone resembles a diminutive cocoa-nut, and being susceptible of a high polish, is cut into rings as ornaments for the Indians' wives and children; the outer rind is sweet and pleasant when chewed for some time.

The *Assery* fruit grows on a species of vine which creeps up the branches of trees; it is about the size of a large gooseberry, and is of a delicious flavour of sweet and acid resembling lemonade.

One of the most valuable roots in tropical countries is the *Cassada*, which grows to about four feet in height, covered with an ash coloured bark, dividing near its top into several green branches; from which spring large leaves supported by a red stalk. The root, when cut, is in substance like a coarse potatoe, the bitter species whereof is* a rank poison until exposed to the action of fire. The Indians manufacture bread from this root, and also a drink called piworrie; the process observed for the former is as follows. The root is first grated, by means of a large board stuck full of small sharp pebbles, against which they rub it, the pulp is put into a long elastic tube, made of basket-work, about seven feet long, though not above three inches in diameter, and closed at the bottom. This is crammed full of the grated cassada root, which causes it to shrink or contract; they then extract the juice by suspending it to a beam, and by means of a heavy weight attached to the end of it the machine is pulled out to its former size, and the poisonous juice, forced through the interstices, falls into a calabash placed underneath to receive it.† The root, after being thus squeezed and dried in

* There are two species, a sweet and bitter Cassava or Cassada; it is the latter which is poisonous until cooked.

† This juice often proves fatal to birds and animals who drink of it.

the sun, is grated, and then sifted through a basket-worked machine constructed for the purpose; and finally made into small thin flat cakes, which are of an insipid taste when dry, but if eaten with fresh butter, palatable: the expressed juice not only becomes innoxious when well boiled, but it forms the principal ingredient in the celebrated pepper-pot of the colonists. Tapioca is the farina of the Cassava, and well known as a light, pleasant, and nutritive diet for invalids. I agree with the celebrated agriculturist, Sir John Sinclair, that the increased cultivation of the *bitter* cassava, (or cassada,) and the transmission of machines for grating it, would be an effectual means of rendering our valuable colonies in the West Indies independent of other countries for food.

The *Heriheri*, a large and majestic tree, furnishes the Indians with an excellent material for kindling a fire. Taking two pieces of this tree they cut a notch in one, and placing the other perpendicularly into the notch so made, by rubbing it round and round between their hands for a few seconds, the friction causes it to ignite; they then light the maroon, which is a species of moss produced from the behersda, and collected by the ants from its leaves to form their nests with. The *Maan* tree produces a gum, which when boiled makes excellent tapers; before boiling it is very hard, and called carimaan. Another tree, called *Dali*, bears a berry from which wax is extracted.

The *Silk Grass Shrub*, called by the Indians curra, bears some resemblance to the aloe, but is much smaller; its leaves rise in clusters immediately from the root, five feet in length, with indented edges, protracted into prickly points. The inner substance of the leaf consists of a number of small strong white fibres, running longitudinally, which the Indians extract by means of a small loop of cord fastened to a post, through which the leaf is drawn with a jerking motion; this takes of the outer green substance, and leaves the fibres ready for twisting into cord, which is done after drying in the sun. When the cord is made, which the Indians do with remark-

able neatness, it makes excellent bow strings, as it possesses extraordinary elasticity and strength.

The *Hiary* (with which the Indians intoxicate fish) is a plant of the papilonacea order, bearing a small quantity of bluish blossoms which produce pods about two inches long less in the leaf than a goose quill, and enclosing about ten small grey leaves: leaf nine inches long, central stem with four spear-pointed leaflets on each side, two inches long and one at the apex: root, when full grown, three inches in diameter, containing a gummy milky juice, which is a powerful narcotic, and prepared by the Indians for fishing, by beating with sticks until reduced to a mass like coarse hemp; the Hiary root is then employed to saturate a corial (canoe) full of water until it is of a milky whiteness, then conveyed to the selected fishing spot, and the water sprinkled with the infusion, (a solid cubic foot of the root will poison an acre of water surface), in about twenty minutes every fish within its influence rises to the surface, and is either taken by the hand or shot with arrows, neither deteriorated in quality nor tainting more rapidly than when hooked.

The *Cockarito Palm*, usually grows to the height of fifty feet, and produces the most delicate cabbage of all the palm species. The cabbage is found in the very heart of the tree at its summit, enclosed in a green husk, which is pealed off in strata, until the white cabbage or inner leaves appear in long, thin, white flakes, and are in taste much like the kernel of a nut; the heart, or centre of it is the most delicate, and, being sweet and crisp, is frequently used as a salad; the outside, when boiled and eaten with butter and salt, is far preferable to an European cabbage.* The bark of this tree, on

* There is a worm or maggot natural to this tree which is reckoned a great delicacy in the West Indies. It is the larva of a black beetle, and grows to the length of four inches, and as thick as a man's thumb; it is called Grogro—and, although disgusting in appearance, when well dressed furnishes a delicious treat, partaking of the flavour of all the spices of the East. Grogros are only to be found on such trees as are in a state of decay.

account of its hardness, is used by the Indians for the manufacture of their poisoned arrows. They are generally cut twelve inches long, with one end sharpened to a point, which is dipped into the poison of the *wouralie*, so called, from the nebe, or bushrope, which forms the principal ingredient in its composition. The other end is wrapped round with a small piece of cotton, adapted to the cavity of a long hollow reed, (usually about nine feet long) into which the arrow is inserted, and by one blast of the breath it is discharged with extraordinary swiftness and unerring aim, carrying inevitable death to the person or animal wounded by it.

The *Plantain tree* (whose fruit forms so large a portion of the food of the negroes and labouring population), grows to the height of from sixteen to twenty feet, throwing out its leaves from the top of the stem, somewhat in the form of an umbrella. They are like rich satin, of a shining sea-green till fading, when they hang down in tatters, as their places are supplied by the young shoots; which open and expand from the top. From the centre of these grows a strong stalk, about three feet in length, that bends downwards with the weight of its purple head, which exactly resembles a calf's heart, and on this stalk, the plantains grow, in considerable numbers, forming one large bunch, of which each tree bears no more than one at a time. When boiled or roasted the plaintain is a good substitute for potatoes, and when ripe a delicious and nutritive desert.

The *Cariaca*, or maize de dos meses, hitherto but little know in Europe, is a sweet and profitable corn, which in the short space of two months from the time of sowing, yields ripe grain. It is not certain whether this plant is a distinct species, or only a variety of the common India corn: but it is in every respect more diminutive, being very slender in its stalk; and with the leaves and ears also small in comparison with the former.

The flavour of the *Cariaca* is very fine, when roasted in the milk, i. e. before the kernel is dry, when it is very soft and

juicy; indeed, it is usually prepared in this way, and seldom permitted to arrive at maturity. The natives sometimes crush, and bake it, and it makes a nutritious, juicy sort of bread which they call Cachapo.*

The *Tayes*, a root growing about eighteen inches high, and a foot in diameter, is much used for food among the negroes; the white inhabitants likewise boil the young sprouts in broth. The root is very productive and forms the chief food of numerous domestic animals.

Of the fruit trees of British Guyana the following, are celebrated for their delicate flavoured products, or medicinal qualities.

The *Hyahya tree*, is of the species of sapotacea, many of which furnish excellent fruit, and some of them are extremely valuable as timber. The whole of this numerous class contain, in a greater or less degree, a milky juice, and in all probability the Hyahya will be found identical, (or a very near species) with the Cow Tree, (Palo de vaca) of Venezuela. It bears a small eatable yellow fruit, of an oblong shape, the leaves are oval, rigid, and lactescent on being broken. It yields abundantly a milky fluid, of a sweetish and rather pleasant taste, also a resinous and albuminous matter, or kind of elastic gum or caouchtou. The tree grows tall, and proportionate in size, but the timber is not reckoned valuable.

The *Star Cherry* is of such size and form as if four European cherries were compressed into one, each division having a stone; the pulp is enclosed within a clear, tender, red skin, of a very agreeable taste, somewhat between sweet and

* It is also very often roasted or parched by them in the following manner:—an iron pot is filled with sand, and set on the fire till the sand is nearly red hot, when two or three pounds of the grain are thrown in and stirred up with the sand, the latter throws up the grain, which bursts and yields a white substance of twice its size before undergoing the process, which is separated from the sand by a wire seive; the latter is then returned into the pot to be heated up again for the same operation. The flour of maize, mixed with wheat, makes sweeter and more agreeable bread than that of wheat alone.

sour, with a slight aromatic flavour. There is another cherry peculiar to the country, resembling very nearly the European, but not nearly so fine in flavour, and but little valued, except for conserves, &c. The former tree, it has been asserted, produces fruit every three months.

The *Missel* or *Medlar*, is a high growing bush, with small pointed dark leaves, producing fruit about the size of an olive, and in form like the hip of the wild rose, and of the same colour when ripe, but containing no hard stone; tastes very much like raspberry cream, it is very delicate and will not keep long.

The *Marcuses*, grow on a high shrub, with strongly furrowed leaves, sharp pointed, and of a light green colour; the blossoms have some resemblance to the passion flower. The fruit, when ripe, is of a dark yellow, and shaped like a lemon, and when cut through the middle and mixed with wine and sugar, is a delightful jelly, and much esteemed. There is another sort, but of an inferior quality.

The *Guava tree*, rises in Guyana about eighteen feet, the leaves rough, running to a point, and of a dark green colour; blossoms white, fruit green, at first, but changing to a light yellow, and about the size of a russeting apple, which it also resembles in shape; pulp soft, of a red colour, and intermixed with very small hard seeds, taste a pleasant subacid, and forms a rich marmalade, as stated under *timber trees*.

The *Pappaw tree*, male and female. The male tree may be easily distinguished by the foot-stalks on which the blossoms stand, being about two feet six inches in length, and by its bearing no fruit. The female grows about fifteen feet high, and eight in diameter, its trunk or stem, is soft, green, and hollow, and the interior part pithy, like the palm; the leaves are about three feet in circumference, and have some resemblance to those of the fig-tree, but are stronger and more pointed; they are supported by long green stalks, rising in clusters from the highest part of the tree, and are seldom more than fifteen in number. The blossoms, which are of a pale yellow, are pentapetalous flowers, very fragrant, and

much used for confectionary. These blossoms are succeeded by a fruit about six inches in length, of an oval form, which when full ripe is of a bright yellow, but it is generally gathered while green, and after extracting the caustic milky juice it contains, it is boiled and served up to table as a vegetable, or made with sugar into preserves. The seeds, when boiled have been reckoned a good antiscorbutic, and resemble the salad we term "mustard and cress."

The *Cannelle*, or *Cinnamon Apple tree*, bears a fruit about the size of a turkey's egg, and of the shape of a pine cone, which, when ripe, is of a beautiful violet colour, and tastes like very rich cream, flavoured with cinnamon.

The *Marmalade tree fruit*, is of a globular form, about the size of an apricot, has a strong skin, and is of a yellowish brown when ripe; and when the fruit is divided in the middle, the soft pulp, (of a deep red colour) is equal to the best marmalade.

The *Moupee*, which is very much like the European plum tree, bears a fruit of a dark orange colour, of the shape of an olive, though much larger, which encloses a stone having a acid taste, and fragrant smell.

The *Marippa*, a species of palm, has fruit as large as an apricot, but rounder in shape, and of an orange colour; it contains a large hard stone, which changes to a jet black; of this the negroes make rings. The fruit is not much esteemed, but a good oil is made from the kernel.

The *Simaruba tree* has a pleasant bitter taste, and is esteemed a specific against the dysentery, as well as an excellent stimulating medicine. The tree bears a resemblance to the European apple tree; but the blossom is of a violet colour, and has a sharp unpleasant smell. The fruit, about the size of an English pippin, is of a blood red, and divided into partitions, like a walnut.

The *Physic nut* shrub grows about six feet high, with a slender knotted stem; the leaves, arising from the top of the branches, are slightly indented, and of an oval shape; blossom, red; nut, thin-shelled; kernel, about the size of a filbert,

divided into four parts by a thin white skin which has no taste, but, if not peeled off, will occasion a strong purging, and, if a sufficient quantity be eaten, a violent vomiting.

The *Castor oil bush*, or *palma christi*, is about the same height as the before-mentioned shrub; the stalks jointed, and the branches covered with leaves about eighteen inches in circumference, forming eight or ten sharp-pointed divisions, spreading out in different directions; the flowers contain yellow stamina; the nut is enclosed in a triangular-formed husk, of a dark brown colour, and covered with a light fur, of the same colour as the husk. It has been said there were two sorts of this tree; but the only difference between them is the colour of the stem—one being green, the other of a dirty reddish colour: their properties are exactly similar, both producing oil of a highly medicinal quality.

The *Quassia* root, whose stomachic qualities are too well known to need description, was first discovered by a negro, whose name it still bears. It is of a strong bitter, and an excellent remedy against the intermitting fever; but must be made use of with extreme caution, as frequently, if too great a quantity be administered, it enervates the system, and renders the patient liable to paralytic disorders.

The *Ipecacuanha* bush grows about two feet high, with large smooth leaves pointed at the end; blossoms of a red colour; fruit, oblong and pointed in shape, about two inches in length, is enclosed in a smooth green husk, containing a number of small flat seeds, of a brown colour, joined by a fine silky filament.

Dr. Hancock, to whom I am indebted for many valuable facts in the Guyana chapter, says—'No soil can be more congenial for the produce of dates, figs, and grapes of superior quality, as proved by the Friars of Carony; as well as for the various aromatics and spiceries, such as the nutmeg, cloves, and cinnamon.* 'This is the natural soil of the odori-

* The writer has observed a wild kind of cinnamon on the mountains of Rippanonie and Parimma. It is called by the Caribees, wabaima, and by the Portuguese, casca preciosa. It grows to a very large tree, having a sweet aromatic bark. The natives represent its wood as being very durable.

ferous vanilla, which has been taken to Martinique and sold at fourteen dollars the pound. Dying woods, cochineal, wild honey, gum copal, &c. abound in the forests, beside a multitude of treasures unknown to Europeans.

'Many of our most valuable and expensive medicines, moreover, could be produced here with facility; as opium and ipecacuanha, which would give a quick return. The more humid parts would likewise produce the invaluable Sarsa de Rio Negro (Smilax syphilitica), which doubtless, with a little research, might be found growing wild.

'It is not improbable that some of the more febrifuge species of cinchona (Peruvian bark tree) would be found on the mountain Mackerapan, or others of the elevated range of Parime. But, whether found indigenous or not, this would afford a proper soil for its cultivation, which would be desirable, now that the cinchona forests on the declivity of the Andes are becoming exhausted.

'The Rubiaceous plants are especially numerous in Guyana. There are several different species of coffee growing wild in the interior parts, as well as of the cephalus genus, of which the true ipecacuanha is one; and there can be no doubt but that the cinchona will likewise be found, all these being of the same natural family. Another tree (of a new genus perhaps) found in Pomeroon, and described by the writer, affords a tonic and febrifuge bark, not inferior to cinchona.

'The cocoa tree grows spontaneously in various parts of Guyana; coffee, pepper, indigo, and vanilla, are indigenous to the soil; manioc and cassada are considered the best alimentary plants; the potatoe, the igname, two kinds of millet, and the tayove, are also very nutritive.

'Guyana is famed for its medicinal plants. It supplies Europe with quassia, or the wood of Surinam. The *dolichos pruriens*, the *palma christi*, a species of ipecacuanha, gentian, the Arabicus costus, the *copaifera balsam*, and many others, are mentioned in the memoirs of Bajon and Aublet.'

Sufficient has been written to shew the value of the vegetable productions of the British settlements on the continent

of South America; and I now hasten to offer a few remarks on the—

ANIMAL KINGDOM. The New World, when discovered by Columbus, was found to contain few quadrupeds, and those few by no means equal in size, strength, or ferocity, to the animals of Asia or Africa; while some were peculiar to the American continent.

Among the principal animals found in British Guyana are the Mypourie (Tapir); Jaguar (S. American Tiger); Bakkire, Pingo, and Peccary (Wild Hogs); Lobba (a small amphibious animal); Salempanter (large Lizard); Cayman (or Crocodile); Coatimundi (or Fox); Opossum; Deer; Manati (Sea Cow); Sloth; Ant-bear; Vampyre, &c. &c.

The *Tapir*, or *Mypourie*, is about the size of an Alderney cow; its body is shaped like the hog, having short legs and tail, and four small hoofs on each foot; its head like that of the rhinoceros, with a prominent bone projecting from the forehead, to which its moveable upper lip and nostrils are attached, forming a kind of proboscis; in its upper jaw there are seven grinders on each side, four front teeth, and two sharp tusks—the grinders very large and deeply cuspidated; in the under jaw, six grinders and one tusk on each side, and six fore teeth; the ears are small, oblong, and pointed; back slightly arched, and covered with short hair of a greyish brown or dun colour. The greatest singularity in this animal is its want of a gall bladder. It confines itself chiefly to marshes and rivers, feeding upon roots and aquatic plants; and, when pursued, invariably takes to the water, and there, like the hippotamus, is sure of a safe retreat. The flesh of this animal, when roasted, closely resembles beef, especially if it be young. The hide, when tanned, makes excellent boot soles, and is highly prized by the Indians for the manufacture of shields.

The *Bakkire* resembles the Egyptian wild boar in shape, but is not so large. It is a native of the high and mountainous parts of the country, subsisting on roots, branches of trees, occasionally on snakes and lizards, &c.; in fact, on any

thing that comes in its way. It is very courageous and fierce when attacked, often coming off best in a combat with the panther, and sometimes even with the jaguar, but not often with the latter. When young, its colour is light brown, marked logitudinally with light grey stripes, which gradually become dark as it gets old, when it is of an uniform dusky hue. The bristles on its back become very stiff, and raised like those of a hedge-hog, when the animal is irritated. It has a glandular orifice in the back, containing an offensive liquor, similar to the peccary.

The *Pingo* is another animal of the same species, but smaller, and more slender in shape. Its habits and propensities are in every respect the same as the former.

The *Coney Coney* is one of the cavery species; in form, something like the guinea-pig, but more delicately shaped, having fine long limbs, with which it runs very swiftly. It lives in hollow trees, banks, and other places where it can burrow. Its food is wild plants, roots, insects, &c.

The *Paca* is also like the guinea-pig in shape; about a foot in length; its hair of a fine chesnut colour on the back, sprinkled with white spots; underneath the belly it is entirely white. It is a remarkably clean little animal, and its flesh esteemed a delicacy, something like the European hare, by which name it is sometimes called. It is very docile, and easily domesticated.

The *Manati*, or *Sea-cow*, has a head somewhat like a bull-dog, nostrils semi-lunar, and eyes very small and near the snout; it is without ears in outward appearance, but has two small spiracula situated at the back part of the head: mouth large, with soft and protracted lips, fitted for laying hold of the grass or herbage growing near the shore; neck short, and body covered with a rough, blackish skin, thinly sprinkled with bristly hair; the belly and sides near the tail, white. From the shoulders protrude two pectoral fins resembling arms, with which it supports itself in the water, and which enable the female to give suck to its young (of which it only bears one at a time) who receive it from several

porous openings or mammæ in the breast of the animal. It has no other fins, but its tail is formed like that of the whale. It is not an amphibious animal, never leaving the water, but feeding upon the aquatic plants and shrubs growing on the borders of the rivers and lakes, sometimes elevating its head to munch at the bushes which overhang them. Its flesh is white and delicate, resembling veal more than any thing else, and when dressed has also a similar taste. It is very singular that the flesh of this animal will keep good several weeks, even in the hot climate of which it is a native, when other meat will not resist putrefaction for as many days. The length of this animal varies from eight to fourteen or sixteen feet.

The *Peccary*, or *Mexican Hog*, is supposed to be indigenous to Guyana, and will not breed with either the wild or domestic hog: it has an orifice in the lower part of the back, from which a fetid liquor is constantly oozing of a very disagreeable smell; and the natives, upon killing the animal, cut away that part to prevent its infecting the flesh and rendering it uneatable. When full grown it is about three feet in length, with finely formed strong limbs, short tusks, and white or grey bristles. A light coloured mark extends from the shoulders on each side of the breast having some resemblance to a horse collar. The Peccarii run in large droves in the woods uttering a loud noise, and are very vicious and mischievous when pursued or irritated.

The *Water-hare*, (also called the *water-hog*,) is an animal about the size of a half-grown English pig, of the hippopotamus species, but differing in shape from those of Africa, although of similar habits. Its mouth is exactly like that of the hare, having long front teeth, the ears shorter and more erect, and the head large and broad. The back is covered with stiff hair of a dusky brown colour, the belly and inside of the legs grey or dirty white: its tail very short. When pursued by dogs it makes the nearest way for the water, and swimming into the centre or deepest part, waits the attack with coolness. On its pursuers approaching it strikes them

with its fore paws, with such surprising quickness and strength, forcing them under the water at every blow, that they are obliged to return to the shore tired out and half drowned. The flesh is considered excellent food, being white and delicate, and much of the same flavour as the tapir (mypourie).

The *Quacy-quacy*, or *Coatimondi*, (the fox of Demerara) is in body shaped like a dog, of a dark brown colour, and measuring two feet from snout to the tail, which is long, hairy, annulated, having black rings upon a deep buff-colour ground; breast and belly dingy white, jaws long and light brown, snout black and projecting upwards, legs short (particularly the foremost), feet long, and like the bear, frequently standing upon its hind legs, and walking always upon its heels: admirable climbers, very cunning and strong, and great depredators on the poultry-yards of the planters.

The *Sloth*, of which there are two or three species, varying in size, is usually about two feet in length, with a head like a monkey, mouth exceedingly wide, eyes languid, hinder legs shorter than the fore, hair long, bushy, of a dirty grey or reddish colour, resembling moss, and with three or two toes, (according to the species), and long and arched claws, with which it clings to the branches always hanging from them, (never standing on them), in which position it is to be found asleep or in action. Its flesh is devoured with avidity by the natives.

The *Ant-bear* measures six feet from the tip of its long tail to the snout, covered with long shaggy black hair on the back and belly, and on the neck and sides of a yellowish grey, the head extremely long and slender, of a light bay colour, ears short and round, mouth without teeth, and only large enough to admit its tongue, which is nearly twenty inches in length when elongated on an ant hill, and resembling a worm covered with slime. When seeking food the bear stretches his tongue on a hillock and draws it into his mouth as often as it is covered with the ants, which stick to it in crossing. The hind legs are black, shorter than the fore, and having five claws; the fore legs are of a dirty white, with four claws, the

two central of enormous length. The ant-bear travels slowly (walking on the outside of his fore feet) in search of ant hills, and when asleep covers itself with its enormous tail. It is esteemed good eating.

The *Jaguar*, or, as it is sometimes called, the South American tiger, (although it more properly should be classed with the ounce species,) is of a beautiful bright colour, between brown and yellow, and when full grown, about the size of, and very much resembling the ounce in shape; the top of the back is striated, of a dark colour, which, as the animal gets old, become at last quite black: the sides are beautifully variegated with irregular oblong spots open in the middle, with a central shading of a light yellow. The jaguar is very courageous, and will attack an ox or buffalo; but if he fails in bringing it down, he retires to seek an easier prey, which, should he not obtain, he will then lie in wait for the human species; this, however, is very seldom the case, unless when compelled by extreme hunger. It can swim well, crossing the large rivers with which the country abounds with the greatest facility.

The *Tiger Cat* is as large as a well grown European cat, but more slender in shape and longer limbed; usual colour light grey, head striped with black, and body marked with long irregular dark spots: there are some variegated with red and black. They live generally in the woods, feeding upon small lizards, mice, birds, &c., and when taken quite young may be domesticated.

The *Crabo Dago*, (i. e. a dog living on crabs,) is about two feet long, and nine inches high, head large, and snout full and thick like that of the hyena, tail long, and legs rather short: the colour generally is a greyish brown; it lives upon crabs, birds, and fruits; is not ferocious, but very mischievous.

There is another species of crabo dago, described under the title of quaci-quaci. None of the native dogs of South America have any voice.

The *Opossum*, a small animal of the Kangaroo species, varies from six to thirteen inches in length, the colour sometimes black, brown or grey, head oblong, and large in proportion to the size of the body, eyes small, ears large, pointed at the end, and standing upright; the tail long and prehensile, but not hairy in general; the feet have five toes with sharp claws, except on the large toe on the hind feet, which is round. Its chief food is nuts, buds of trees, and grain of any kind. There are two or three sorts of this animal, but the above will suffice for a general description.

The *Armadillo* (of which there are several varieties) is covered with a strong crust of scales or shells, in hexangular figures, and of from seven to ten moveable bands, the last of which is only half way upon each side; the head is very oblong, ears in proportion and erect, claws sharply pointed, and tail long and jointed. The animal rolls itself up when sleeping, to cover with its armour its vulnerable parts (the snout, ears, and belly,) in case of attack; it is a quiet, harmless creature, feeding upon roots, worms, and other insects, and grows to about eighteen or twenty inches in length: its flesh is considered delicate eating, somewhat like a rabbit in taste and colour, and it burrows in the ground like that animal. When pursued it begins digging a fresh burrow, if too far off its own retreat; and when half buried, and its tail taken hold of by its pursuers, it will suffer it to be torn off sooner than let go its hold: the Indians tickle it behind with a small stick, which soon causes it to relinquish its hold, and allow itself to be taken.

There are two species of *Deer* very numerous in Guyana, the one resembling in shape the fallow deer of Europe, but with shorter and less branching antlers, usually of a brown grey; very fleet and courageous when closely pursued. The other, something like the European roebuck when young, of a light brown, with longitudinal stripes, of a clear white, about the size of a goat, very delicately framed, and without horns. It lives chiefly in the marshy parts of the colony, and

if taken* when quite young may be domesticated, but never lives long in that state, gradually pining to death. When full grown, its colour becomes uniformly brown.

The *Baboons* and *Monkeys* of Guyana exhibit great variety;—among the most remarkable are,—

The *Howling Baboon*,—of a bright ferruginous colour, and about thirty inches in height when standing erect; face beardless, quite bare, and covered with a black skin, as are also the hands: tail prehensile, and of considerable length. The cartilaginous organ with which the rattling noise is made, from whence it is named, is about six inches in circumference, in the form of the cup of a wine glass, with the upper part turned to the windpipe, and surrounded with numerous membranes, which can be opened or closed according to the pleasure of the animal; the noise issuing from it is clear and shrill, and can be heard at a considerable distance.

The *Kissee Kissee* (of the *Sapajou* species) is about the size of a half grown cat, perfectly symmetrical in form; head small and round, face of a flesh colour, and covered with short white hair; eyes large, black, and piercing; the tip of the nose and the mouth surrounded with black hair; the body is of a bright gold yellow shaded with brown, the under part white; hands and feet orange colour; the tail, which is tufted at the end, dark brown or black. When this little animal is taken young it becomes quite domesticated, but if confined to a room or chained up, soon frets itself to death. There is a rare species of the *sapajou* which can seldom be caught, about the same size as the above, but differing in colour,—the body being brown, the head face and hands black, the chin edged with a short straight beard, which is continued all round the head; the face is flat, and the cartilaginous

* The Indians have a curious method of taking animals, which they perform in the following manner:—a man, seated in a thickly-branched tree, blows a species of flute or whistle called pita, with which they can imitate the cry of a young deer; by this means he not only brings the old dam to him, but various beasts of prey, which are soon shot by hunters concealed in other trees near the spot.

partition of the nostril very broad. It is of a mild disposition.

The *Wanacoe*, or bush-tailed brown *Saccawinkee*, is rather larger than the two preceding, and covered all over with long brown hair, which turns on the head towards the face; tail like that of a squirrel. It is in general a lively and docile animal, but turns melancholy if confined, in which state it will not live long.

The *Large-eared Saccawinkee* is not more than eight or ten inches long, but beautifully formed; the face is round, nose high between the eyes, and flat towards the end; upper lip divided, like that of the hare, eyes dark chesnut colour; ears large in proportion to the body, and tail at least a foot long; the fore hands, and as high as the elbow, are of an orange colour; the body a shining black, intermixed with yellow hair; the face is also black; although there is a very rare species having a white face. The Dutch have named the first-mentioned *Chagrintee*, on account of its being soon offended, when it becomes spiteful and mischievous.

BIRDS.

The sportsman and naturalist will find ample employment in Guyana, where the feathered tribe, in number and splendour of plumage, make some amends for the deficiency observable in quadrupeds;—to particularize each species, whether of bird, beast or fish, would be beyond the limits assigned me; I must therefore content myself with giving, as in the foregoing section, a few specimens as illustrative of the country, reserving for another opportunity a more detailed account of the *Natural History of the British Colonies*. To begin with the connecting link between birds and beasts, I may mention;

The *Vampyre Bat*, which often measures thirty inches from point to point of wing when extended, although the body seldom exceeds seven or eight; resembling the harpies of old in their hideous and disgusting appearance. The vampyres may be seen in the forests, hanging head downwards in clusters on the branches of trees: the large kind suck the blood of men

and animals when sleeping, the smaller that of birds; while sucking a gentle flapping is kept up by the wings, which lulls the sufferer until an exhaustion of blood prolongs the period when the vampyre may suck with impunity. While sleeping in an open hut the vampyres are only kept off by means of large fires.

The *Crested Eagle* far surpasses in size the monarch of European birds, sometimes measuring seven or eight feet across the wings; it has a crest of four long black feathers, which are erected when about to seize its prey or if it be irritated. The ground colour is of an ash grey with dark shading; the bill and legs yellow, very strong and long; eyes large and black.

The *Falcon*, of which there are two or three species, differs very little from those of Europe in shape or size, and is chiefly distinguishable by the colours. The *White* Falcon (so called from its body being of a beautiful clear white) has wings and tail like a swallow, of a bright glossy black, as are also the legs and eyes.

The *Brown Falcon* is in every respect like the former except the colour of the body, which is brown, with the belly and thighs covered with yellow spots.

The *Spotted Falcon* is a most beautiful bird, about the size of a pigeon, and similar in shape to the preceeding; its head beak, wings and tail are black; legs yellow, and breast a deep orange, with white specks scattered over the whole body.

The *King of the Vultures*, an immense bird, as large as the black eagle, is of a pinky white, or flesh colour, in the body; wings black; head and neck (entirely divested of feathers) of an orange and rose colour, alternately shaded; the beak is overhung with a fleshy substance, also of an orange colour, curiously shaped, like an ornamented tassel. The eyes of a light pearl colour, are round and large and sparkling; around the neck, above the breast, is a kind of collar of thick rough feathers, of an iron grey colour, which serves it as a safeguard to draw its head into when likely to be stung or wounded by the venomous snakes, upon which it usually feeds.

Among the birds worthy of notice for the beauty of their plumage, or singular propensities and habits, are—

The *Banana Bird* (so called from its fondness for that fruit), as large as a thrush; body chiefly of a yellow or orange colour, beak and legs horn colour, wings and tail black; it builds its nest nearly a yard in height, of a conical form, composed mostly of grass, with an opening half way down for its entrance. The bottom is semi-globular, with the upper and narrowest part fastened to the extremity of a branch that overhangs the water, in order to secure its inmate and brood from lizards and other reptiles.

The *Currie Currie*, or Red Curlew, is a very beautiful bird, having a neck, body and wings of bright scarlet, the four principal wing feathers tipped with black; its legs are long and slender. It is larger than the common curlew, and very delicious eating when young, at which time it is quite black, not attaining its rich plumage until a year old.

The *Partridge*, called *Anamoe*, is much of the same shape as the European partridge but larger, of a dark brown colour on the top of the head, back, and wings; the breast, legs and thighs, of a cream colour, with transversal bars of orange and black feathers. The head and bill are small, neck long, tail wanting; it is a bad flying bird, runs very swift, and finds shelter among the low bush-wood; its flesh is extremely luxuriant eating.

The *Maam* is about the size of a pullet, which it resembles in shape and habits. It is of a light brown colour, and when dressed the flesh is white and delicate, but very dry, which is rather remarkable, as the bird is exceedingly plump and fat, and cannot fly any great distance without resting.

The *Wallababa* is a beautiful bird, with a deep purple body and white wings. Its cry sounds like its name, but its voice is harsh and hoarse.

The *Ibibirou*, is somewhat like an English magpie, its head being black and white, the breast, back, and wings are tastefully variegated.

The *Tiger Bird*, or *Bittern* is of a bright brown colour,

marked with black stripes like the animal after which it is named; bill hard, long, and very sharp pointed, neck and legs very long, and the body, although looking large when the bird is flying, generally small and thin.

The *Douraquare*, resembles the English partridge in its colours, but is not more than half its size.

The *Dara*, is about as large as the jay, with a plumage of snow-white, and a high crest of black and white rising from its head; its notes are clear, loud, sonorous, and romantic, resembling the sound of village church bells.

The *Mocking Bird* is larger than the starling, of a black and yellow colour, with its beak of a sulphur tint; delights (as most of the birds of this continent do), to take up his abode near the habitation of man; his note is sweet and short, but if a sheep bleat near him, a dog bark, or a hen cackle, he stops his own note, and instantly commences with apparent delight an imitation of the animal he hears, with a mimicry quite extraordinary. The nests are pendulous, and suspended from the outer branches of trees, similar to those of the Banana Bird, to which it is a near species, if not actually identical; but the latter is not so perfect in its imitations, which is in all probability the reason they have been distinctly classed.

The *Waracoba*, or *Trumpeter* (Psophia Crepitans of Linnæus) is about the size of a domestic fowl, with short wings and tail, and long legs, runs very fast, but seldom flies. The singular habits of this bird are very amusing: it will stand on one leg as the traveller approaches, and hop or dance before him, and then tumble over and over like a merry andrew, uttering at the same time a peculiar noise, from which it derives its name. When domesticated it becomes much attached to the person who feeds it, following him about like a dog, and driving away all other birds, and even a hog or any domestic animal; jumping upon and scratching them with such fury that it intimidates and puts them to flight. Naturalists are at a loss to account for the sound it makes, some averring that it proceeds from the

belly, after the manner of a ventriloquist; others (and Linnæus amongst the number), say it is caused by the anus, but they all agree that this power is confined to the male bird. According to Dr. Hancock, a gentleman of great experience, who resided in the West Indies nearly thirty years, the trachea (wind pipe) runs down the belly to within an inch of the anus, it is then doubled back upon itself and enters the cavity of the chest at the anterior part of the breast-bone; in all probability, therefore, it is this peculiar formation that gave rise to the before-mentioned conjecture. These birds are highly prized by the Indians, and kept in their houses, but are seldom or ever known to breed when domesticated.

The *Sun Fowl* is about the size of a woodcock, and similar in shape, with a long pointed beak, and long slender legs; colour brown, shaded with black and yellow; the long feathers in the wings resemble the rays of the sun, which it is apparently very proud of shewing, as it almost invariably appears with its wings spread out like a peacock's tail. It lives upon insects and soon becomes tame.

The *Swallows* of Guyana resemble those of Europe in most respects, but are rather larger, and in place of the white mark under the throat of the latter, have one of an ash-grey. They build in houses, and never quit the country.

Macaws and *Parrots* are in great variety.

The *Toucan* (called by the natives *Pia-poco*, from its cry) is about the size of a magpie, having an enormous beak, or proboscis, which appears to weigh the bird down to the earth. Its plumage is exquisitely variegated with yellow and black, upon a ground of brilliant scarlet; the eye is also encircled by bare skin, of the same colours combined. It flies by jerks, like the magpie, and is equally cautious of strangers.

The *Hou-tou* (also named from its cry) is a most magnificent bird,—its plumage partaking of all the colours of the rainbow. It can only be met with, at the dawn of morning, in the woods and unfrequented places, and may then be

heard articulating, with a loud and clear voice, "*Hou-tou hou-tou,*" in such a distinct mournful tone, that the traveller is at once interested and delighted. This bird never approaches the habitation of man, shuns all society with other birds, and is seldom caught.

The *Wow Wow,* so called by the natives, is a beautiful bird, with a head and breast of a deep blue; back and rump, very much like the peacock's neck; belly, bright yellow, or gold colour; and very short legs, so that the bird seems to squat on its stomach, much like the swallow; the neck is quite destitute of feathers, although it cannot be easily observed as it sits upon the branches with its head sunk between its shoulders; it flies by long jerks, and is about the size of a pigeon.

The *Han-na-qua* somewhat resembles a hen pheasant, though smaller in size; the bill and legs are flesh-coloured, and the cheeks red.

The *Marradie,* or Wild Fowl, is of the same species as the former; about the size of a barn-door fowl; head and body chiefly black, slightly speckled with white.

The *Cole* is also of the same species, size and colour as the Maradie, except the head and cheeks, which are white—the latter are naked.

The *Derli,* or *Fly-catcher,* equal to any before mentioned for variety and beauty of plumage, is about the size of a pigeon, its body partaking of all the different shades of brown, spotted with white and black. It may be easily tamed, and will stay in a house, feeding upon flies, which it darts at with its bill.

The *Powie Powie,* or Wild Turkey, (somewhat smaller than the domestic bird of Europe) has a bright yellow bill, and a beautiful crest of glossy black feathers, very curiously curled near the points; head, neck, and body, of a shining black; tail long, consisting of several broad feathers, which it can spread at pleasure. This bird, like the Hou-tou, &c. derives its name from its cry, and is excellent eating.

The *Peacock Colibri,* or Humming Bird, of which there are varieties too numerous to be treated of here, is of an ex-

quisite shining green, with a rich red brown shading; neck, particularly brilliant, of a still lighter green; tail, a bright purple, with gold-coloured feathers on each side; the bird is about three inches long, of which the tail is full half. There are several other species, varying in size from a quarter of an inch to five inches, and variegated with all the colours of the rainbow. Their nests are built between the forked branches of trees, and are composed of dry leaves, lined with silk cotton; they lay two white eggs, of the size of peas, but rather oval in shape, on which they sit ten or twelve days. These exquisitely lovely creatures subsist chiefly on the juice of flowers; the largest sorts upon gnats and other very small insects.

The *Black-winged Woodcreeper*, somewhat larger than an European titmouse, is of a most brilliant ultra-marine blue, except the throat and wings, which are glossy black; the inside of the wings, silver grey; the bill, about an inch and a half long, is black, and the legs orange, with three toes before and one behind, ending in small crooked nails.

Among the principal water-fowl are the

Snow-white Egrette, so called from the delicate and beautiful plume on its breast, which so frequently adorns the heads of the European noblesse. The bird is of the shape of the heron, but not quite so large, with a black bill.

The *Spoonbill* is as large as a full-grown goose, and, like that bird, web-footed; the bill, from which it derives its name, is from six to seven inches long, quite straight and flat to within two inches of the tip, where it becomes broad and round, exactly resembling a spoon; the head is of a whitish or grey colour, and rather bald on the top; and the feathers on the body are slightly tinted with pink. The spoonbills may be seen by dozens standing in a line, ranged like soldiers, on the beach, waiting for the small fish which are brought in by the tide.

The *Hammie Hammie*, a large bird of the heron species, so called by the natives, measures about six feet from head to foot, with a long straight bill, terminating in a point, of a light pink, or flesh colour. The top of the head is black,

adorned with a small crest; neck long and white; wings brown, and tipped with black; and back covered with long hairy feathers.

The *Vicissy Duck* is smaller than the European duck; bill, legs, and feet of an orange colour; feathers on the top of the head brown, with variegated bars of a light chesnut; breast, a dark mahogany colour. The Vicissy breed in the savannahs, and make a sort of whistling noise, not in the least like that made by ducks in England. They are so timid that, when fired at, though unhurt, they fall to the ground to all appearance dead; but if not mortally wounded, they are scarcely ever discovered, as they hide themselves in the grass with surprising dexterity. They are very delicate eating, being free from that fishy taste so unpleasant in the Muscovy duck.

The *Jabiru* or *Crane* is clear white, except the head and prime feathers of the wings and the tail, which are black; the legs, neck, and back, are very long like the European stork, which it also resembles in size.

The *Grey Crane* is of the same shape, but not so large as the former; of a blueish grey, with a small crest on the back part of the head, and some long light grey feathers along the neck; the beak and legs (long, like the preceding) are of a greenish cast.

The *Flamingo*, about half the size of the European stork, and of the same shape, is of a lively scarlet when full grown; (when young, white or grey,) with an arched bill, long legs and wings.*

The *Aunakee*, or *Wild Duck*, is not so large as those of Europe, but stands higher on its legs; it is of a light brown,

* The embouchures of the rivers in Eastern Africa are crowded with these beautiful birds, which, at a distance, resemble regiments of soldiers drawn up on the beach to oppose a landing. During the expedition of Captain Owen in the *Leven and Barracouta*, I have seen our sailors shoot hundreds of flamingos for the purpose of making a dish of the *tongue alone*, the remainder of the bird, in imitation of the Roman epicures, being thrown away.

beautifully variegated with darker shades, bill and legs of a pale orange; frequently domesticated among the poultry, and excellent eating.

The *Water Hen* is about the size of, and resembles in shape, the European moor hen, but of a deep cinnamon colour, with the principal wing feathers of a light green; it has a small comb on the forehead, crossing the beak, of a blood-red; the beak, which is about two inches long, is of a yellowish green. It has three long toes before and one behind; taste rather insipid and somewhat fishy.

The *Darter* is a fine bird, as large as a Muscovy duck, and something like it in shape, but more slender; the head is oblong, and small in proportion to the body, ending in a pointed beak about three inches long, which causes it to look like a serpent; the neck long, body chiefly grey, shaded with black and white. This bird waits on the bank until it sees a fish rise in the water, when it pounces down with amazing quickness; if unsuccessful in transfixing the fish with its beak it will pursue it under water, and indeed it rarely fails in catching the object pursued.

LIZARDS AND SERPENTS.—Guyana, teeming with animal and vegetable life under a vertical sun, may be naturally supposed prolific in lizards, serpents, &c.; these reptiles are however objects of fear, owing rather to their prodigious size or hideous appearance, than to their poisonous qualities or voracity towards man.

The *Cayman,** or *Crocodile*, or *Alligator*, is seldom found more than from fifteen to twenty feet in length, usually of a light dusky colour when young, but becoming iron grey when full grown; it has a hard scaly impenetrable skin, indented

* The Indians, it is said, are very expert in catching the cayman:—a man dives down upon the crocodile's back, while asleep, and fastens a rope round its body; he then strides across it and, making a signal to his companions on the river's bank, they are pulled towards the surface of the water together. By tickling it under the axilla with a stick, the monster, it is stated, becomes perfectly manageable, and is hauled to the beach, where the rider's comrades despatch him with iron-shod clubs.

on the back and upper ridge of the tail; the head very strongly formed, with a long snout and extremely wide jaws, armed with a formidable double row of sharp teeth. The claws on the fore feet are tremendously strong and sharp. The flesh, although of a musky smell, is eaten with avidity by the Indians. For a description of the internal structure see Cuvier's Natural History.

The *Guana* is about three feet long from the head to the extremity of the tail, and covered with a soft skin, of a blueish green colour on the back and legs; on the sides and belly nearly white. It has a bag or pouch of loose skin under its throat of a light green; eyes black; and claws, of which there are three or five on each foot, sharply pointed. It has also a fringed skin or kind of mane running along from the head to the tail which it erects when irritated, and will then snap hold of any thing with great tenacity, but it is perfectly harmless if undisturbed; the bite is painful but not dangerous. The Indians hunt this animal for its flesh which is very delicious, and reckoned but little inferior to turtle.

The *Brown Lizard*, called also the *Devil in the Wood*, is about eighteen inches long, tail included; it has no scales, is of a dark brown colour, mixed with black spots; the head large, and the legs armed with strong claws. It runs very fast, feeds on small birds and insects, and will bite very severely.

The *Serpentine Lizard* is a very singular reptile, being neither serpent nor lizard, but partaking of the characters of both. The shape and contour of the body is exactly that of a serpent, with four armatures or feet attached. The body is very slender and nearly cylindric, covered with small annular bands, a little interrupted at the insertions of the feet, which are very imperfect, being small appendages, almost without toes or nails except mere rudiments; it is therefore their situation alone that would imply them to answer that purpose. The eyes are small, teeth widely placed and very fine, tongue bifid and cutaneous; the back is of chocolate colour, belly white. The limbs have each a joint about the middle, forming a sort of elbow, and there are three toes on each fore foot. When

roused by any approaching of danger it displays much courage and agility, notwithstanding its helpless appearance, and springs aside at the assailant sometimes to the distance of two feet, never making the least attempt to escape. The bands under the belly are quite incapable of being elevated so as to facilitate motion, as in most other serpents.

The *Banded* or *Annulated Lizard*, a harmless little creature, about five inches long, is one of the prettiest of the species; it has a flat and pointed head, the body coloured with black and light blue regular stripes, about a quarter of an inch wide; the feet have each five small sharp claws, the tail about an inch and a half long, is pyramidical in form, and covered with fine bristles.

The *Salempenta*, or *El Mateo*, measuring from the tail to the nose three feet, is exceedingly ugly; colour chiefly a brownish green, with yellow spots; and marked in the most extraordinary hieroglyphical manner: amphibious, running along the bottom of rivers as easily as it does on dry land, and feeding on herbs and small insects; it is thought (particularly by the Indians) good eating, the flesh being white and tender. It has some resemblance to the Guana when seen at a distance, but is much more repulsive in appearance than that animal. The Salempenta has (like the Chameleon, and several others of the same species) in some measure the faculty of changing its colour when in any way excited, either through fright or anger; but does not shew its shades in such great variety as the Agamma, or common *Green Lizard*, which is about ten inches long, of which the tail measures half.

The *Agamma*, or *American Chameleon*, is distinct from those of Africa in shape, by the back part of the head not running to a point, and its tongue being short and thick. The body is about six inches long, and the tail above nine, in shape is like the Guana, to which genus it belongs; the principal change of colour observed in it is from green to brown, or vice versa, which, in the opinion of Baron von Sack, (who had several of them domesticated) is assumed to deceive an enemy when approaching, and to render itself invisible,—

for example, if put on a green umbrella (says the Baron,) it immediately changed to that colour, and upon being let down upon the floor, which was made of the bollo tree (of a dark brown) it assumed a very dark chocolate colour. This change seems to be effected by the motion or disposition of its scales, as they are either elevated or depressed by its voluntary power; and when the reptile is fresh caught this will take place five or six times in a minute, all the time snapping at any thing that approaches it. The bite, if not attended to, will inflame and become painful, but is not at all dangerous. The power of changing colour is not confined solely to the chameleon, but common to several of the lizard tribe.

Of the Serpents, the *Iguana* is in colour resembling the *Guana* lizard, and has a similar bag or pouch under the throat. It is about seven or eight feet in length when full grown; its bite is said to be in most cases fatal.

The *Rattle Snake*, is usually between seven and eight feet long, very thick in the middle, and tapering towards the neck and tail; head large, flat and broad, with two knobs or projections over the eyes; nostrils wide, and snout blunt at the end. Within the tail are several thin horny hollow rings, with which, when the snake becomes excited, a rattle-like noise is made. The colour of the head and back is a dusky orange, mixed with brown and black spots; belly a whitish grey or ash colour, teeth long and widely situate, tongue forked and quite black; bite considered fatally poisonous.

The *Kunukusi*, or *Cœnnukusi*, so called from counoko, the wood or bush; attains very often ten or twelve feet in length, and is of a yellowish grey colour, marked on the back with dark brown or black spots, of a diamond shape, and zig-zag or diagonal lines; the belly of an ash or dirty white colour. The *Kunukusi* is the Crotalus Mutus of Linnæus, placed by some naturalists under the genus Boa, but more properly belonging to that of the himararia, labaria, and parrot snake. The kunukusi has a head somewhat three sided in shape, and obtusely levelled, or as if pared round with a perpendicular stroke of a knife: eyes placed laterally, having over each a large oblong scale. On each side of its mouth there

is a bundle consisting of seven fangs, the foremost one fixed in the upper jaw, on a prominence or projecting point of a bone, which is capable of motion. The second, of about the same size, is attached, as it were, by cartilage, and keeps the same position as the first. The remaining five lie in a bundle enveloped in a separate sheath, immediately behind the two primary ones, gradually diminishing in size backwards; the tongue is three forked; the tail, which is short and pointed, terminates with a horny substance, sometimes an inch in length. This serpent, like most others of a venomous character, is very sluggish, and slow to bite, unless irritated, and then it darts with great velocity, springing its whole length on an enemy; who, if bitten, meets inevitable death.

The *Labaria* is another venomous serpent, of the same genus as the preceding, which it closely resembles in shape, but is much smaller, and its colours more vivid; it generally measures five or six feet when full grown, and is of an ashy grey on the body, and light blue on the sides and belly: the back is marked with dark spots and yellowish transverse lines. The head and fangs are similar to those of the preceding.

The *Himararia* is another of the same character in every respect as the two above named.

The *Parrot Snake*, so called from its colour being exactly like the common green parrot, is of the same genus as the three former. It grows to about a yard in length, and resides in hollow trees, preying upon small birds, mice and insects; the bite is extremely dangerous, in most cases proving mortal.

The *Cebayru*, one of the worst class of poisonous serpents, is generally found about three feet six inches in length, and thick in proportion, of an ash colour, with transverse bands of black, and white under the belly: eyes large, and covered with a thin transparent convex or lens, of a grey colour; mouth also large, with two rows of teeth on each side of the upper jaw, and one in the lower; at the posterior extremity of the outer row, in the upper jaw, on each side, is a large fang pointing backwards, provided with a muscular sheath or cover. The whole body is covered with large scales: it moves with great rapidity, (contrary to the habits of most others of this

class,) sometimes springing several yards at a leap; the bite causes the body to swell, producing almost instant death: it preys upon small birds and reptiles.

The *Scarlet Serpent* reaches to the length of five feet, and to four inches in circumference. The upper part of the body is of a brilliant scarlet, the belly of a dull red, the head flat and white, tail very slender and short; bite in most cases fatal.

The *Caruna*, when full grown, is about four feet long, slender in shape, and of a brown colour on the back, belly dusky white, the sides and back covered with black oval spots. Its head is wide and flat, neck small, and its bite is believed to be poisonous.

The *Colukunaru*,* growing as large as the East India boa constrictor, and to which genus it belongs, is generally of a grey ground colour, beautifully dotted with brown spots; towards the tail the colour becomes of a reddish brown, joined with white rays, or bounded by irregular white spots; on the back and sides it is finely marked with transverse bars of an ash colour, the belly speckled with a light yellowish green. It is much feared by the Indians on account of its prodigious strength, as it very often seizes a horse, or other animal of equal size, and winding itself round the lower part of the belly, makes its way towards the head, breaking every bone, and holding as it were by hitches (like that part of machinery called the cog wheel, which forms a stop or check to retain whatever it has gained) until its victim is incapable of motion, when it begins to gorge the carcase whole. The colukunaru is said to exhale a pestilential air from the mouth which deprives its prey of motion, and renders it perfectly passive, but this has never been substantiated.

The *Camodi*, an amphibious snake, from ten to fourteen feet in length, and sixteen inches in circumference, is of a grey ground colour, with large oblong dark-brown or black spots; the sides have ocellated marks or spots of the same colour, with yellow centres. It is of the same class of serpents as the preceding, but usually living in creeks or ponds,

* In Arrawak—to take Deer.

and subsisting upon ducks and other water-fowl: its bite, though not poisonous, is very severe, as it has two rows of sharp teeth in the upper jaw a quarter of an inch long, and pointed slightly backwards.

The *Mamuria* is about the same size as the kunukusi or bush-master, of a yellowish grey ground colour, with oval ocellated black spots on back and sides, belly speckled with yellow and grey, head broad and flat, and marked with black stripes, a dog's nose, and its lips serrate or notched.

"The *Boa Scytala of Linnæus*," attains a vast size in these retired and humid regions, (often measuring thirty feet,) but seldom met with, and therefore but little known. There is a smaller snake of this class very often found (usually five or six feet long, and rather thick in the middle) with a dart of bone attached by muscular fibres to the upper jaw or palate, about two inches in length. The colour on the back is a dark luridous green, the belly and sides clouded with black and ash coloured spots: it has a horny substance at the end of the tail, similar to the kunukusi, lamaria, and others of that class.

Turtles.—There are two species of land turtles indigenous to these Colonies; the first of which, the common turtle, eighteen or twenty inches in length, has an upper shell of an oval form, hexangular in shape, highly convex and elevated, of a yellowish brown colour, and very hard texture; the under shell slightly concave, and of a lighter colour. The head, feet and tail resemble those of an European tortoise, which it is also like in its motions: they feed on fruits and vegetables, and are tolerable eating, but not equal to sea turtle.

The other species, called by the Indians Arracaca, is of a smaller size, its upper shell flat, of a dark dingy colour, and seems capable of a fine polish; the body of the animal is black, with light red spots; the taste is very indifferent.

There are likewise three different species of land crabs, but being nearly alike in most respects, it will be sufficient to notice only—

The *Abenoura*, which is about the size of a man's hand,

the body of a quadrangular shape, and a vivid blue colour; there are eight legs, four on each side, covered with bristly hairs, and towards the end tending to a fleshy hue. The abenoura burrows in the earth near the sea-shore, and on the banks of rivers, from which they are dug out by the Indians, who are very fond of them; they are also esteemed a delicacy by the white inhabitants. The best manner of dressing them is to pick out all the flesh from the shell, the former is then made into a stew, with plenty of cayenne pepper, and then dished up in the shells: in this way they are very little inferior to turtle. The Indians, who do not understand the above method, merely boil or roast them in ashes, by which they are deprived of their luxurious flavour, and become not only insipid in taste, but disgusting to look at.*

Rana Paradoxa. There are several species, or perhaps varieties, of frogs in Guyana, whose larvæ or tadpole grows to a considerable length before the tail drops. In these cases it does not fall suddenly, but begins from the extremity to lose its vitality, shrink and slough off, till the perfect frog appears: previously, however, the legs are gradually protruded, the hinder ones are first observed, then the fore legs: the skin, which may be observed to grow to the body of the larva, only in a small number of points, loosely envelopes it, as it were, in a purse. This is, however, not peculiar to the species, but common, perhaps, to most of the genus. The above subject has a branchial opening, or gill aperture, only on one side of the head, by which it imbibes oxygen from the air contained in water, in the same manner as fishes do.

Insects. The *Knife Grinder*, or *Rhinoceros Beetle*, resembles an European beetle in shape and colour, but is of a much larger size, with a long stout horn, projecting from the end of the nose, and a smaller one beneath. With these horns the knife grinder seizes on a young branch of a tree, then setting its body in a rapid circular motion, an attrition is kept up for

* Lieutenant-Colonel St. Clair, in his amusing West Indian recollections, gives this opinion respecting the cooking of the Demerara crab.

some time, until the wood is completely sawn through; the insect making all the while a deafening noise, exactly like that of a knife grinder holding steel against the stone of his wheel. When the branch drops off they strip it of the bark, upon which they subsist while it lasts; when a fresh supply is required they again commence the usual operation.

The *Lantern Carrier* is nearly three inches long, the body of a beautiful green, in shape something like the common moth; with four transparent wings, of a delicate light green, and on each of the under wings a spot brilliantly variegated with purple and yellow, not unlike the feathers in the peacocks' tail: from the head rises a large proboscis of an oval form, but tapering most towards the head, which is called the lantern, as it emits a bright light, said by some to be so powerful, that on putting two of them under a glass, a common print may be read by them. There are two other species of fire-flies, having a luminous spot under each wing, (so that the light can only be observed while they are flying), which in the rainy season assembling in great numbers, appearing sometimes like so many intermitting sparks from fire-works.

The *Cacerlacke*, or *Cock Roach*, (so well known as scarcely to need description) is about an inch and a half long, of an oval form, shaped like the common black beetle, but of a brown colour; the body of a soft texture, has six legs attached, head almost triangular. It sheds its skin once a year, when it obtains wings, but does not make much use of them, is of a noxious smell, and very destructive to wearing apparel of any kind; seldom appears in the day time.

The *Scorpion*, a very formidable insect, in these colonies, is usually about three inches long, of which the tail is one-third; the body shaped like a lobster, and of a grey colour: from its neck proceeds two claws, having three divisions or joints, and armed at the end with a pair of sharp pointed forceps; the other four pair of legs resemble those of a spider, the tail is jointed, and has at the extremity a crooked tube of a horny substance, containing a liquid, which the

insect injects into the wound inflicted by it, and causes it to swell and become exceedingly painful. The Scorpion preys upon other insects, and will not attack an individual unless in defence, for which it is always prepared, flying with its tail coiled over the body.

The *Centipede*, a kind of caterpillar, growing sometimes to the length of seven or eight inches, is provided with a tremendous pair of forceps, proceeding from the head, and, like the Scorpion, inflicts a severe wound when irritated. The body consists of twenty articulations, each having a pair of legs attached, with which the insect runs with amazing quickness. These noxious vermin will sometimes breed in houses, but do not then attain above half the size before-mentioned.

The *Bush Spider* is about two inches long, of an oval form, the abdomen covered with black hair; the fore part of the corslet is almost square, to which are connected five pair of legs, about two inches long, armed at the end with two yellow claws; from the mouth projects two teeth in form of inward pointed pincers. It makes a strong thick web, but small in proportion to its size; it is asserted the females carry their young ones in a bag or web, which they deposit beneath the belly. The bite of this spider causes a violent inflammation, which no doubt proves fatal to its prey, which is composed of large and small insects.

The common *House Spider* is somewhat less than the preceding, of a light grey colour, making no web, but pursuing the cock roach and other insects, when it grows dark; the bite is not dangerous to the human species, nor are its pincers strong enough to penetrate the skin.

The *Tarantula* is about three quarters of an inch in length, of a light green colour, with diagonal stripes of yellow, the body is divided into two parts, the lower or abdominal part, of the form of a pea; its forefeet, of a bluish colour, has sharp pointed claws, which it turns on every side as if it expected to be attacked; they inflict, when laid hold of, a painful and venomous wound, difficult to heal, but not endangering life. There is another species of tarantula, of a

larger size, and black colour in the body, armed with yellow claws, chiefly confined to the forests.

The *Mary Bunter*, or *Guyana Wasp* is not so large as those usually found in England, but its sting is much more painful, so much so that very often they will draw blood from each sting leaving a troublesome wound. There is another wasp, above an inch long, but very slender in shape, the body of a purple colour, legs yellow, sting very long, their nests are in the roofs of houses, or in hollow trees.

The largest of the *Ants*, of which there are abundance in the colonies, is—

The *Black Ants*, about three quarters of an inch in length; they build their nests deep in the earth, fetching their materials from the higher parts of trees; the bite causes considerable pain.

The *White Ants*, nearly as large as the preceding, form their habitations on the upper part of a tree, of incrusted earth, several feet in circumference, and containing many covered alleys. They are very destructive to household furniture if they take up their residence in a dwelling.

The *Red Ant* is a very destructive insect; its march is in dense columns of myriads at a time, destroying and devouring every thing in the way. These vermin, in utter contempt of the safeguard of lock and key, make their way through the smallest crevice, and take up their abode as long as any thing in the shape of food remains; it is said indeed that they will cover the whole body of a sleeping person, and there stick with the tenacity of leeches until satisfied. They have even been known to cause the death of animals, by lodging themselves in the hollow part of the foot and eating their way clear to the bone.

Butterflies are very numerous, and of every colour that it is possible to conceive; they are much larger than those of Europe, very similar in shape, but far surpassing them in splendor and variety of tints and shades.

The *Chigre* is a small species of sand-fly, which insinuates itself into the skin of the feet and toes, and if not disturbed,

penetrates between the skin and the flesh, and forms a bag in which it encloses itself and deposits its eggs, which are very numerous; in a few days this bag increases to the size of a pea, when it bursts, and the young brood begin to form other bags; so that if not timely prevented they occasion severe ulcers, which are healed with considerable difficulty. There are several other insects which, like the former, enter the skin, but are not so formidable, as they only occasion an itching, and are easily destroyed by washing with soap and lemon juice.

Before quitting the animated portion of Guyana it may be considered necessary to give some description of its—

Ichthyology. As may be expected, from the numerous rivers and extensive flat coast, British Guyana teems with fresh and salt water fish of every possible variety; as yet we are imperfectly acquainted with this as well with the other kingdoms of nature, and I therefore gladly avail myself of the long experience and scientific knowledge of several gentlemen* to whom I am under many obligations for details relative to the important Colonies of Britain on the American Continent.

The *Low Low* (of the genus *Silurus*)† is the largest fish of the tropical rivers, very often measures twelve feet in length, weighing upwards of two cwt.; the head, which is flat and broad, is covered with a strong bony plate extending to the first back fin. This plate, as well as the first ray of the dorsal and pectoral fins is a small spine, studded with white bony tubercles; the bones of the fins, about five inches long and sharply pointed, are most formidable weapons of defence, and can be erected or depressed as occasion requires. The

* Dr. Hancock and Mr. Hillhouse of Demerara, formerly an officer of the staff corps, and now a Surveyor, who, it is melancholy to think, has received so little encouragement from the local Government in his arduous and meritorious efforts to extend our knowledge of British Guyana.

† The genus *Silurus* have a remarkable peculiarity, noticed by Mr. Hillhouse, namely, that of the young fry entering the mouth of the female fish in cases of danger. I have observed the same with the shark, or a nearly similar fish on the Madagascar coast.

back is of a bluish cast, belly white, mouth and fins yellow, hinder parts reddish. The *Low Low* feeds chiefly upon other fish, and although of so large a size is considered excellent eating.

The *Gillbagre* (*Silurus*) a sea fish, called by the Indians Weerokotoory, is similar in every respect to the preceding, but does not attain half the weight or size of the Low Low, the swim or sound of the former contains a highly glutinous substance equal to that of the sturgeon. Although rather hard as food it is exceedingly well flavoured.

The *Cuirass*, is of the same genus, and scarcely differing from the last-mentioned except in its colour, and in its not affording the isinglass substance peculiar to that species.

The *Cum Cum* is in its general conformation like the cuirass, to which it also bears a resemblance in colour, but is slightly darker, rather more slender in shape, and consequently not so heavy. It feeds upon crabs and insects, and is well flavoured.

The *Lucannany*, or *Sun Fish*, is seldom more than seven or eight pounds in weight, or two feet in length; it has in its tail a golden circle that renders it perceptible to the Indians at the depth of three or four feet in the water, who shoot it with barbed arrows called wayuwakassy. It feeds upon smaller fish and insects, and it is excellent food, being firm, fat, and with but few bones. Owing to its extreme lusciousness it is difficult to salt or dry.

The *Arawan* is between two and three feet in length, its body somewhat compressed and covered with large scales, edged with a beautiful scarlet. As food this fish is particularly fine, but, like the last treated of, very fat and luscious.

The *Tetroden*, or *Swell Belly* (so called from the power it possesses of inflating its body into a globular form, with only its head and tail slightly protruding, and in this state swimming almost out of the water,) is seldom more than six inches long, the body of a yellowish brown colour, crossed on the back with black bands. It is a very voracious fish, and considered fatally poisonous.

The *Haimora* (*Esox*) is a fine fish, growing to the length of four feet, and twelve pounds in weight. The power of its teeth and jaws is sufficient to cut off a man's hand at the wrist; it is exceedingly voracious, preying upon fish half its size,—is excellent eating, and forms the principle article of food with the Accaways of the Demerara river.*

The *Pyara* is four or five feet in length, and weighs twelve pounds. It is remarkable for the length of the two lower front teeth; on the full grown male they are four inches long, fitting into two flexible apertures between the nostrils; it swims with great strength and velocity, and attacks all other fish. It is not particularly esteemed as food being coarse and bony.

The *Cumuruaa* is a large fish, in most respects similar to the *haimora*, with very large scales; it is good eating, and inhabits the creeks and rivers.

The *Separie*, or *Sting ray*, is in form much like the salt water sting ray, with a long tapering tail like a whiplash, and a narrow membranous fin, extending about eight inches on the under side, backward from the point opposite the thorn, which is a strong sharp white pointed bone, four inches long, barbed on both sides, and a most formidable weapon, with which the Indians very often mount their arrows:—a wound inflicted by them is very difficult to heal and apt to mortify, for which reason the fish has been said to be poisonous, but the extreme laceration occasioned by it† no doubt gave rise to this assertion.

The *Arapaima*, a large fish but little known to ichthyologists in general, is between six and seven feet long and five

* The Indians have an ingenious mode of catching this fish, by means of a trap made of a cylindrical piece of bark, about five feet long and six inches in diameter, which, after being stopped at one end, and a live fish fastened to the bottom, is suspended horizontally by a string tied to the branch of some neighbouring tree, at about two feet below the surface; the *haimora* then, attracted by the bait, puts his head beyond the centre, the lower end of the cylinder sinks, it becomes vertical and the fish, enclosed with its head downwards, is beyond the possibility of escape.

† These fish lie concealed under the mud, and very often inflict severe wounds on the feet of the Indians.

inches broad, and weighs about seventy pounds; of a silver grey on the back; belly white; the outside of the pectoral fins a vivid green; the scales are large, and their margins, particularly along the inferior and posterior parts, marked with a brilliant red or scarlet; the head is elongated, and the snout also, like that of a hog; teeth very small and sharp. This fish is very shy, and seldom caught.

The *Peri* is about two feet in length, of a flat shape, with a large head, wide mouth, and very sharp teeth. It has a fin on each side of the belly, and a single fin on the back, which is covered with shining scales of a blueish colour. It lives in fresh water, and is very rapacious, very often snapping off the legs of ducks and other water fowl, or even a man's foot; but the Indians, in order to frighten them, keep in constant motion while bathing, in which case the fish always remains at a distance.

The *Cartabac* is from fifteen to eighteen inches long; back of a darkish colour; sides light red or orange; belly white; the fins very soft and fleshy, and the whole body covered with small scales. It feeds on fruits, seeds,* and insects, and is excellent food, being fat and containing few bones; the taste somewhat resembles turbot.

The *Pacou* is from sixteen to twenty-four inches in length, sub-oval in shape, with very small scales, of a silver grey ground colour, beautifully spotted with bright scarlet. It chiefly feeds upon aquatic plants and seeds,† and is, when well prepared, quite a delicacy.

* This fish is peculiarly fond of the seed of the carassa, and is in the highest state of perfection in the month of June, when that seed falls from the trees. The Indians boil the seed and, enclosing it in a small basket, lower it about two feet in the water, and as the fish appears to devour it, shoot them with arrows.

† The *Weyra*, an aromatic vegetable, eaten by the Pacou and other gregarious fishes, is thus employed by the Indians for the purpose of taking that valuable fish. A part of the falls, where the Weyra grows plentifully, and where shoals of the Pacou are perceived feeding, is enclosed with a wall of loose stones, about a foot above the surface of the water, leaving

The *Morocoto*, or *Osibu*, usually between two and three feet in length, feeds entirely on herbs and fruits, and is a most delicious fish, equal to the pacou, or in fact any other natural to the tropics. It is in taste nearer resembling flesh than fish, and eagerly sought after by the epicure.

The *Bashaw* grows to the length of thirty inches, somewhat resembling the last in shape, but not so much in demand as food, the taste being rough and strong.

The *Dawalla*, or *Piava*, is shaped something like a trout, and also in some degree resembles it in taste, not however possessing the fine flavour of that fish, being dry and insipid.

The *Lowkiddy*, or *Yellow-back* (Silurus), is about fifteen inches long, with a large head, and two very long whiskers extending from the upper jaw and four shorter from the lower; the body is small in proportion, with small scales. It is pretty free from bones, and the taste tolerable, but not generally esteemed.

The *Yarrow* (Esox) is about a foot long, and when the water is drying off it burrows in the mud, and has been found* living under the earth when there was no water at all. It is fat, free from bone, and very good eating; it feeds on fruit, seeds, and insects.

The *Snake Fish* is about two feet six inches long, and an inch and a half in diameter; of a dark brown colour on the upper part, underneath of dull yellow, studded with dark spots; the head is very soft, snout flattened, eyes small, and near the point of the jaw. The greatest singularity connected with this fish is, that its heart will continue to move several hours after the fish is dead. The bladder, or sound, running

two narrow spaces for the fish to enter, which, having done, the apertures are speedily and silently closed with long stakes and bundles—and the fish are thus confined within a temporary dam or pond. In this manner from 200 to 300 Pacou, weighing, on an average, seven pounds each, and a hundred weight of other fish are taken at a time. The Pacou are split, salted and dried on the rocks, and when cured will fetch a guilder each.

* Dr. Hancock.

along the spine, contains air that burns when put in contact with a light.

There are numerous other species of small fish; but my limits will not admit any further description. The above are those most generally known, and esteemed for their fine flavour or other peculiarities.

COMMERCE. Of the trade of the *entire* colony of British Guyana, I have no complete return; that for Demerara and Essequibo I give according to the latest year in my possession, and which, with many other valuable documents, has been kindly furnished me by Mr. Rose, the indefatigable and intelligent agent for the colony.

TRADE OF DEMERARA AND ESSEQUIBO FOR 1830.

IMPORTS. From the United Kingdom — official value, £542,107; West India Colonies, £21,628; North American Colonies, £125,168; United States of America, £541; Foreign States, £45,084; — total Imports, £734,528.

EXPORTS. Sugar, 56,666 hogsheads, 2,848 tierces, 4,502 barrels — official value, £1,361,925; rum, 26,143 puncheons, 4,835 hogsheads, 1,296 barrels — £139,106; cotton, 3,695 bales, £35,971; coffee, 5,025,256 lbs., £181,863; molasses, 19,585 hogsheads, £70,081; British manufactures, £26,068; miscellaneous articles, £20,690; — total Exports, £1,835,704: thus forming a grand total of £2,570,229.

Ships Inwards. From the United Kingdom, 169 ships, 50,438 tons; British Colonies, 319 ships, 31,632 tons; Foreign States, 79 ships, 7,170 tons; — total, 567 ships — 89,240 tons — 5,230 men.

Ships Outwards. For the United Kingdom, 192 ships, 54,858 tons; British Colonies, 379 ships, 35,872 tons; United States, 1 ship, 96 tons; Foreign States, 23 ships, 3,697 tons; — total, 595 ships — 94,523 tons — 5,600 men.

The greatly increased exports of sugar will be seen on comparing the year just given with the following statement of produce shipped from the Colonies of Demerara and Essequibo, from 1803 to 1825:—

Year.	Number of Vessels.	Sugar.			Rum.			Cotton.	Coffee.	Molasses.		
		Hds.	Tierc.	Brls.	Punc.	Hds.	Brls.	Bales.	Dutch pounds.	Hds.	Tierc.	Brls.
1803	394	19,638	213	161	4,887	—	—	46,435	9,954,610	311	—	—
1804*	71	2,161	71	19	504	—	—	6,318	439,520	311	—	—
1805	200	15,839	212	129	3,611	17	—	21,202	2,295,701	1,637	—	—
1806	221	19,337	474	804	4,722	17	—	23,604	12,390,102	1,694	—	—
1807	198	16,857	138	643	5,813	7	—	26,314	4,399,141	4,255	6	—
1808	202	18,383	168	578	6,474	11	—	18,361	9,204,718	2,544	72	171
1809	191	17,065	210	286	6,412	7	—	13,588	2,463,163	1,321	19	9
1810	211	15,731	27	402	4,967	7	—	28,850	7,652,342	1,597	26	120
1811	269	18,374	21	243	9,364	39	—	20,916	13,233,534	3,856	156	398
1812	274	22,276	53	186	10,086	63	—	25,069	8,279,725	2,513	144	259
1813	227	20,585	163	637	12,117	120	—	16,426	10,485,158	777	—	23
1814	245	22,170	187	314	10,980	107	—	1,447	6,250,412	780	—	2
1815	294	31,550	326	642	14,181	127	—	30,315	10,204,902	2,327	41	11
1816	336	29,418	510	587	11,038	135	—	15,361	12,271,476	3,843	2	16
1817	309	36,682	72	474	15,062	70	—	17,235	14,908,943	9,567	16	33
1818	443	37,387	157	797	14,587	161	—	19,137	7,244,085	8,968	24	71
1819	434	45,936	479	1,124	15,761	446	—	9,718	8,944,009	9,450	—	13
1820	423	49,953	720	1,224	23,609	581	—	9,193	4,518,523	7,567	—	—
1821	426	39,780	783	785	16,162	881	—	9,006	5,702,919	5,191	—	11
1822	391	45,177	1,008	1,671	19,672	1,841	—	14,905	10,264,297	10,200	14	61
1823	368	51,360	449	2,470	15,781	2,568	—	9,587	8,084,729	19,634	230	269
1824	395	47,393	371	1,631	13,531	1,966	739	8,275	7,761,355	24,528	282	256
1825	374	47,635	481	1,603	12,305	2,220	1,233	12,683	3,500,983	23,824	746	311

The trade of Berbice for 1831 was—

Imports. From Great Britain, value sterling, £110,450: British Colonies, £40,811; Foreign States, £9,916;—total Imports, £161,177.

Exports. To Great Britain, value sterling, £235,242; to British Colonies, £65,080; to Foreign States, £23,515;—total Exports, £323,837,

The principal articles of Exports were—sugar, 10,850 hogsheads; molasses, 279 casks; rum, 2,117 puncheons; coffee, 2,241 tierces.

The shipping employed was—

Inwards. From Great Britain, 34 ships, 8,937 tons; British Colonies, 194 ships, 10,665 tons; Foreign States, 14 ships, 1,616 tons;—total Inwards, 242 ships, 21,208 tons.

Outwards. To Great Britain, 30 ships, 7,737 tons; British Colonies, 210 ships, 11,304 tons; Foreign States, 6 ships, 1,087 tons;—total Outwards, 246 ships, 20,128 tons.

The quantity of Sugar, Coffee, Rum and Cotton imported into the United Kingdom for the year ending January, 1832, was—

* From 10th September, 1804, to 5th January, 1805.

	Sugar.	Coffee.	Rum.	Molasses.	Cotton.
	cwts.	lbs.*	galls.†	galls.	lbs.
Demerara & Essequbo	802,134	1,991,352	2,320,000	2,000,000	979,702
Berbice . .	122,087	1,585,402	220,000	200,000	554,083
Total .	924,221	3,576,754	2,540,000	2,200,000	1,533,785

The relative state of cultivation of Staples in Demerara and Essequibo in May, 1832, may be judged of by the following return of Estates to Government:—

PARISH.	Sugar.	Sugar and Coffee.	Cotton.	Coffee.	Coffee and Cotton.	Timber.	Farms.
St. Mary, No. of estates, .	18	0	5	0	1	0	7
St. Paul, ditto, .	14	3	6	0	2	0	1
St. George & St. Andrew, do.	4	1	0	4	0	0	0
St. Matthew, ditto, . .	6	11	0	5	0	0	0
St. Mark, ditto, . .	11	3	0	16	0	2	0
St. Swithin, ditto, . .	2	9	0	2	0	0	0
St. Luke, ditto, . .	13	6	0	3	0	2	2
St. Peter, ditto, . .	28	0	0	0	0	1	0
St. James, ditto, . .	20	0	0	0	0	1	0
St. John, ditto, . .	18	2	0	1	0	2	0
Trinity, ditto, . .	20	1	1	2	1	1	0
Total Number . .	152	36	12	33	4	9	10

WEIGHTS. Principally steelyards, from 1 to 3,500 lbs.; 110 lbs. Dutch = 100 lbs. English, or 10 per cent difference. Of measures, 1 Dutch ell of 26 inches Rhyaland, is equal to 27 inches.

THE FORM OF GOVERNMENT in Guyana is peculiar. At the capture of Demerara and Essequibo, in 1803,

* In 1828 there was imported from Demerara of coffee, 3,832,194 lbs. and from Berbice, 1,792,677 lbs.

† Eighty gallons of rum are expected from every hogshead of sugar. The rum of Demerara has a richness of flavour, which gives it a preference in the American markets over the Jamaica rum.

The *Court of Policy* consisted of eight members — four official appointed by the Sovereign, and four from amongst the inhabitants by the College of Kiezers. Official members —the Governor, the Commander of Essequibo, the Fiscal of Demerara, the Fiscal of Essequibo; two members returned from the district of Demerara, and two from the district of Essequibo. Each district had a College of Kiezers, consisting of seven members.

The *College of Kiezers* for each district was elected by the inhabitants. They held the situation for life, or during their residence in the colony; qualification, twenty-five slaves, and three years' residence in the colony; qualification of electors, the possession of twenty-five slaves. Vote by ballot. Votes sent into the Governor's Secretary's office, and deposited in a sealed box, and opened in the presence of the Governor and not less than two other members of the Court of Policy.

The College of Kiezers nominated two persons to fill vacancies in the Court of Policy. The Governor and the Court selected one from the nomination, and notified in the *Gazette* the person selected. The senior member of the Court went out after the meeting of the Combined Court, which assembled annually for levying the taxes.

Financial Representatives. The College of Financial Representatives, nominated by the inhabitants, the same as Kiezers, and consisted of six; three returned by the district of Demerara, and three by the district of Essequibo. Term of service, two years; qualification, same as Kiezers; duties, to sit with the Court of Policy annually, for the purpose of levying taxes and regulating the expenditure, which was then called the Combined Court—"the Court of Policy combined with the Financial Representatives." At this combined meeting the Court of Policy submitted an estimate of the expences for the year, which had previously been prepared and discussed in that Court. In the Combined Court every item of the estimate was discussed, and every member, whether of the Court of Policy or Financial Representatives,

had an equal vote. At this meeting the public accounts of the preceding year were examined and audited, which was the peculiar province of the Financial Representatives.

The Court of Policy passed all laws for the internal regulation of the Colony. It required four members to constitute a Court. No law binding without the concurrence of one member of the representative section of the Court. Qualification for a member of the Court of Policy, the owner of a plantation, and three years' residence.

Judicial Department.—Each district had a court of civil and criminal justice, which consisted of six Members and a President. The Members (Colonial) elected by the Kiezers in the same manner as the Court of Policy; the two senior members retiring every year; qualification, possession of twenty-five slaves, and three years' residence in the colony. The Commander was President of the Court of Justice of Essequibo; the Governor President of the Court of Justice of Demerara; the law of Demerara was the law of Holland or Roman law. Each member of the court an equal vote on both law and fact: all cases decided by a majority of votes.

In 1812 the courts of justice of Essequibo and Demerara were united by proclamation of the Acting-Governor, Major-General Carmichael; and the court of justice of Demerara became the court of both districts; and consisted of eight colonial members and a president, the president appointed by the Crown.

The colleges of Kiezers and Financial Representatives existing in 1812 were dissolved by General Carmichael's proclamation, and a College of Kiezers and Financial Representatives was established, in which the functions of both colleges were united; this college consisted of seven members: term of service two years; and elected by the inhabitants of both districts, paying tax on an income of 10,000f. per annum, or possessing twenty-five slaves; all the courts having been united.

In July, 1831, the ancient court of justice was abolished, and a new court constituted by Order in Council, by which

Berbice was united with Demerara and Essequibo; and the Court of Policy formed of ten members, five official, and five colonial; the governor, in case of an equality of votes, having a casting vote as formerly.

The Colleges of Kiezers and Financial Representatives were separated in 1831; the members of the College of Kiezers are now for life, and consist of seven members; the Financial Representatives of six members, term of service two years; one college each of Kiezers and Financial Representatives for the Colony of British Guyana, being Demerara, Essequibo and Berbice; and the qualification, possession of twenty-five slaves as previous to 1812.

The court of criminal and civil justice of British Guyana, and the court of civil justice and the court of criminal justice of Berbice, together with several courts of criminal trial, and of first instance of civil jurisdiction in the island of Trinidad, and also the royal court of St. Lucia, by an order in council, 23rd April, 1831, are directed to be holden by and before three judges; that is to say, before the president of the court of civil and criminal justice in Guyana, the chief judge of Trinidad, and the first president of the royal court of St. Lucia; the three judges repairing, from time to time, to the said respective Colonies; two sessions in the year, at the least, to be holden in each settlement. In criminal cases three assessors, qualified by certain regulations, and open to challenge as jurors, are associated with the judges, and punishment can only be inflicted by sentence of the majority delivered in open court. In each of the above mentioned colonies courts of inferior jurisdiction in civil and criminal causes are established, subject to the appeal and revision of the superior court of assize. The colonists object to these proceedings; they deny that the Home Authorities have any right to annul their ancient form of government, because a compact was solemnly entered into at the capitulation in 1803, and signed by the legislative assembly of the colonists, (*not merely by the military powers,*) wherein it was agreed that the religion, laws, liberties and institutions of the colonists

should be guaranteed to them and their heirs for ever, unless where and when altered with their own consent. Contending as I do, most strenuously, for the right of every colony to its local legislature, I perfectly agree in the justice of the following observations recently addressed to Lord Goderich by Messrs. Rose and Smith, the deputed agents for the colonists.

They say that "the first point to which they claim attention is the right of legislating for themselves on all matters of internal policy; a right which they possess, both as British subjects, and by virtue of the articles of capitulation under which the colonies surrendered to His Majesty's arms.

In July 1831, an order in Council was published, abolishing the Courts of Justice then subsisting in the colony, and directing others to be established in their stead, but the judges who were to compose the new court, were not then in the country, or even in the West Indies, independent of which it was for other reasons physically impossible that the details of the order should be carried into effect, yet by its mere publication the colony was deprived of its courts; but what was still more extraordinary, one month before the publication of this order, and consequently before it ever had, or could have come into operation, it had actually been suspended by another order in council, issued in this country, and bearing date 20th of June; this second order was not published in the Colony till 22d of Nov. 1831, and for the whole intermediate period from the 21st of July, till the 22nd of November, this large and valuable Colony was without a court of justice, or any legal tribunal whatever, either for the protection of property, or for the punishment of crime, exhibiting the unprecedented spectacle of a community, enjoying all the institutions necessary for conducting the affairs of civilized society, stripped in one instant of all these advantages—reduced to a state of anarchy—and that by an Act, not of a hostile power—but of the government, to which allegiance has been sworn, and from which protection was due, an Act framed by that government, not with the intent to injure, but to benefit the colony. Nothing surely can point out more strongly the good sense on which the claim of the colony rests, or demonstrate more clearly the impossibility of the Mother Country legislating for a community four thousand miles distant; nor can we conceive the claim of the colonists to control their finances, resting as it does both on established right from the earliest period of their history, and on its own self-evident justice and reasonableness, to require more than to be stated, in order to be at once admitted by His Majesty's government, in accordance with the principles of the British Constitution.

The franchise, the right of voting for Kiezers, the colonists readily concede, was, in the infancy of the settlement, restricted to persons having

twenty-five slaves, but regulations of this kind applicable to a settlement consisting of a few planters, receiving their supplies from ship-masters, and other transient traders, would be utterly inapplicable to a community where the planters form but one class of a society which comprises among its members a large body of merchants, and many of the learned professions; to disqualify these latter classes because they are not proprietors of twenty-five slaves, and for that reason alone to exclude them from any voice in the government, whatever their wealth, their talents, or station in life may be, whatever may be their possessions in land or buildings, in the colony, or however great their contributions to the public purse, would be an act in itself so unjust, that it would never receive the deliberate sanction of the British government, certainly not of the ministers who now guide the councils of their sovereign.

As regards the court of justice, the colonists feel that it is a stigma wholly unmerited, to deprive them of a seat in that body.

They appeal to the records of the colony to prove the unimpeachable integrity of their old court, they appeal to the fact, that in more instances than one, the opinion of the colonial members of the court, in opposition to that of the professional judge, has been confirmed by His Majesty in council, and they unite in praying the restoration of an institution so well adapted to the wants of the community, and so revered and cherished. The nature of this communication prevents us from entering into details, but it would be very easy to shew how impossible it is for a court composed only of three lawyers, sent out from this country to administer a foreign law amongst a people, of whose manners, customs, and modes of transacting business, they were totally ignorant, how impossible it is for such a court to conduct the judicial business of a large and trading colony, without the aid of colonial members, or the intervention of a jury. How unjust that a man tried, perhaps for his life, should be deprived of the jury or any equivalent institution. But whilst the colonists urge the re-establishment of their court of justice, they claim not infallibility for the institution, and to evince their readiness to meet the wishes of His Majesty's Ministers, they would, notwithstanding the impoverished state of the country, consent to an addition of three judges, men of legal education, to be appointed by His Majesty, that is, in all, three professional judges for Demerara and Essequibo, and one for Berbice. On these points, which refer more particularly to the constitution of the colony, the right of legislation, the control of the finances, the franchise, and the re-establishment of their courts and institutions, the colonists are aware the law would secure to them ample redress; but they have ever anxiously desired not to stand in opposition to His Majesty's government, and they would willingly accept, as a boon from His Majesty's grace, what they might have demanded as a right from his justice." Messrs. Rose and Smith then proceeded to "sketch out the heads of a plan of redress, which if embodied in a new

charter to the colony, would remove many of those evils which are so rapidly destroying its best interests, would restore to tranquillity the country in general, and place it in that state of peace and security, which must undoubtedly be the great object of His Majesty's Government.

The Court of Policy of Demerara and Essequibo consists of eight members, four official, and four colonial; the number established in 1789, when the colony was just beginning to grow into some consideration, and to attract the notice of the Mother Country; but which of necessity is very inadequate to its present maturity and importance, since the period referred to, other interests have arisen, which were then unknown in the colony. Mercantile establishments have been formed, the trades, the arts and sciences, incident to a community have been extensively cultivated. It is, therefore, highly necessary that the court should keep pace with the colony, and that it should be established on a basis sufficiently extensive to afford scope for including a fair average expression of the sentiments, and representations of the interests of the community for which it is to legislate: for this purpose the number of colonial members should, they conceive, be increased to ten more, especially if the court is henceforward to be the Court of British Guyana; the Governor, and at least ten other members should be required to form a court, for the dispatch of business; this court to originate and make all laws for the internal government of the colony, subject to His Majesty's allowing or disallowing the same, any member to be at liberty to submit to the court for deliberation and decision, any bill or motion, after notice and leave, had the question of granting or refusing such leave, to be decided, as all other questions, by the majority of the voters of the members present.

For the reasons above alleged, for the increase of the members of the Court of Policy, the financial representation ought also to be increased, say to nine, chosen as formerly by the inhabitants; (individuals or firms), possessing twenty-five slaves, or paying tax on an income of ten thousand guilders, and upwards, the financial representatives, of whom, not less than six to be present, to sit with the Court of policy, in a combined court, for the purposes of taxation, each member of this combined court to have an equal vote. No tax or other burthen, to be laid on the colonists, except by this combined court, which should deliberate on all matters of finance, discuss the estimates, item by item, and fix both the amount to be raised, and the mode of raising it; the King's chest to be consolidated with the colonial. The Kiezers might remain at their present number, seven, chosen as formerly by the inhabitants, (individual or firms), possessing twenty-five slaves, or paying tax on an income of ten thousand guilders and upwards, the term of service to be limited to five years, but the members who have served to be immediately re-eligible. In accordance with the ancient practice, a financial representative may hold the office of Kiezer and vice versa, but no person actually filling a judicial situation, whether

appointed by His Majesty, or elected by the Kiezers, as a colonial member of the court of justice, to be eligible to the office of Kiezers, or financial representative, or to a seat in the Court of Policy, either as an ex-officer, or a colonial member; the Kiezers, in a meeting of not less than five of them, to elect, as formerly, the colonial members of the Court of Policy and Justice; nominating such persons as from their stations, respectability talents, property, and residence in the colony, they may, on oath, deem best qualified to discharge those important duties, without reference to the particular district, in which the property of the party elected may be situated. The qualification of a colonial member of the Court of Policy, to be, as now, the possession of a plantation in the colony, or as regards three seats in the court, the paying tax on an income of not less than *f. 20,000, coupled with a residence of seven years in the colony.

The court of justice to consist of eleven members for Demerara and Essequibo, namely, the President and two Puisne Judges nominated by His Majesty and eight colonial members, chosen as formerly by the Kiezers. For Berbice also of eleven members, namely the President and one of the Puisne Judges of Demerara, the Puisne Judge of Berbice, and eight colonial members, the President, two Puisne Judges, and at least four Colonial Members to form a Court, which should set once in every three months, in each colony. One Puisne Judge, to hold the Roll Court every fortnight, and to discharge the duties now performed by the president, granting arrests, &c. &c.

One Puisne Judge, and two colonial members, to hold the Commissary Court every month.

The rules for proceeding, to be drawn up by the Court of Justice, and submitted by the Court of Policy, if approved of, to be made law by the latter court.

The Deputy Fiscals in each district, or others, appointed magistrates, to hold courts for the recovery of debts under f 100, and for the trial of minor offences, with authority to inflict punishment by imprisonment, not exceeding one month, or fine, not exceeding f 100, or by whipping; three magistrates to form a court.

The colonists also complain of the exorbitant fees of the public offices as at present regulated in the colony, and they require the table to be revised, and new ones formed by the combined court on more equitable principles; the remodelling of any of the existing offices, to be effected by the Court of Policy. As regards those public officers who have fixed salaries, the colonists desirous of proving their readiness to give government every fair support, would disclaim all interference with the salaries of the governor or Lieutenant-Governor, the President, the Puisne Judges, Fiscals, and the protectors of the slaves, unless with the previous sanction of His Majesty's

* *f.* florin or guilder.

ministers; they would only stipulate that these salaries should now be adjusted to the circumstances of the times, on a scale to be approved of by His Majesty; the salaries of the public officers to be revised by the combined court, with reference to the diminished expense of living in the colony, and the impoverished resources of the inhabitants."

I have every hope that this reasonable prayer of the Guyana colonists will be granted; no minister who watches the signs of the times and provides for coming events will refuse an accession to just claims.

Demerara and Essequibo contains eleven parishes, whose names and extent are, *St. Mary's*, extending from Abary Maicony, and to Mahaica, thence to Plantation lowlands inclusive, and embracing the settlements on the banks of the Maicony and Mahaica creeks; *St. Paul's*, from plantation Northbrook to Cuming's lodge, inclusive; *St. George* and St. Andrew united*, embrace George Town and the plantations on the Cumingsburgh canal; *St. Matthew*, from George Town up the East bank of the

* *George Town*, the capital, is divided into districts, thus;—Kingston, joining Fort William Frederick; Cumingsburgh, North and South; Vlissengen, which is sub-divided into Robs Town and Lacey's Town. *Stabroek*, a district in itself, and ancient part of the Dutch capital; also en Rust and Charles Town, which are bounded by plantation La Penitence; to the Eastward of Fort William Frederick is situated Camp House, the residence of the Governor—a few hundred yards to the East of which is the residence of the Ordnance Storekeeper. Between Camp House and the Ordnance Department, a little to the South, are placed two splendid hospitals, with kitchens, cisterns, &c. for the military—nearly opposite to which the new military barracks have been lately erected; they cannot be surpassed in accommodation in any part of the King's dominions—two for the men and officers, with kitchens, servants' apartments, cisterns, &c. &c. To the East of the Ordnance Department are the quarters of the engineers'—and adjoining the engineers' quarters are the York and Albany barracks, built by the colony, for the accommodation of 200 men and officers. Facing the river, in the district of Stabroek, new public buildings of bricks, stuccoed, have been erected by the colony to accommodate all the public officers—they have cost the colony upwards of £50,000 sterling; near to the latter is the Scotch church, a very handsome modern building—to the Eastward of which is the town guard-house, &c.

the river, as far as the settlements extend, including those in canal No. 3; *St. Mark,* from plantation Mindenburgh along the W. bank of the river as far as the settlements extend, including those on canals No. 1 and 2; *St. Swithin,* from plantations La Grange to Jalousie inclusive; *St. Luke,* from plantation Blakenburgh inclusive to the Essequibo river, and along the E. bank upwards as far as the settlements extend; *St. Peter* comprehends Leguan and Hog islands, in the mouth of the Essequibo river; *St. James,* Waakenham and Troolie islands, in ditto; *St. John,* from Schoeven creek to Capoey ditto, on the W. coast of Essequibo river, including the settlements on the intervening creeks and on Tiger island; *Trinity,* from Capoey creek to the Pomeroon river, and as far as the British settlements extend.

MILITARY DEFENCE. Each male freeman between the ages of sixteen and fifty is compelled to enrol himself in the militia, which is liable to be called out at the pleasure of the governor, for service, not extending beyond the preservation of internal tranquillity. The strength of the militia may be reckoned at five thousand men. The senior officers in the country are justices of the peace, and exercise a jurisdiction over certain districts, each of which is distinguished by different coloured banners. They are termed burgher officers, and their duties in general consist in promulgating proclamations, taking depositions upon tax schedules, carrying into effect public and local laws, and putting down any disturbances which may arise within their jurisdiction.

FINANCE—*Revenue.*—The items of taxation in *Demerara and Essequibo* are principally as follow:—*Tax on produce* yielding about 220,000 *florins*;* *on income f.*46,000; *on horses and carriages f.* 30,000; *tonnage and beacon duty f.* 30,000; *wine and spirit duties, and tax on transient traders f.* 65,000; *poll tax on slaves*† *f.* 28,000; *grog shop licences f.* 10,000; *gain on bills of exchange f.* 20,000.

* A florin or guilder is equivalent to 15 stivers—each one penny English.

† How this tax is in future to be levied is not known or provided for.

The following is an account of the receipts of Demerara and Essequibo for 1830.* Bills on the colonial trustees on account of dividends on funded property, £4642. 17*s*. 1*d*. *f*.65,000; bills drawn on colonial trustees on account of funded property sold, £21,428. 11*s*. 5*d*.—*f*. 300,000; saving bank of slaves, *f*.1,360. 0. 0.; arrears of tax on slaves, 6,374. 0. 0. horses and carriages, 3,954. 0. 0.; income, 14,507. 0. 0.; produce, 30,732. 18. 0.; cart licenses, 2,310. 0. 0.; liquor and grog shop licenses, 9,100. 0. 0.; huckster licenses, 1,175. 0. 0.; beacon and tonnage duty, 31,259. 0. 0.; tax on slaves, 28,902. 0. 0.; horses and carriages, 30,132. 0. 0.; income, 46,579. 0. 0.; produce, 227,457. 19. 12.; wine and spirit duties, and tax on transient traders, 65,109. 11. 8.; amount refunded, being expended last year for repairing the Leliendaal road, 9,066. 0. 0.; amount from the king's chest, for half expenses, sea dam, last year, 1,017. 10. 0.; fines from the protector of slaves, 2,400. 0. 0.; a fine from A. M. Meerteens, Esq. (returned a member of the Court of Justice) 3,000. 0. 0.; amount refunded by plantation Craig, being expended for making up the road, 3,410. 0. 0.; a fine from his honour the first Fiscal, 1,100. 0. 0.; ditto the second ditto, 220. 0. 0.; amount from plantation Retrieve for a negro given up from the colony workhouse, 1,000. 0. 0.; law expenses paid, 388. 15. 0.; gain on Bills of Exchance, 19,230. 7. 8.; surplus jail fees, 8,824. 11. 0.; table money entered in 1829, not called for, 12. 0. 0.; refunded from the ordnance for money expended on camp house, 18,200. 0. 0.; total receipts, *f*. 931,821. 17. 12.

It will be perceived that part of the annual income of the Guyana government is procured from a *property tax*. The following is the valuation of produce in *Demerara* and *Essequibo* alone, as returned on oath for taxation in 1830.

* This is the latest year I can obtain in England; for Berbice I find the gross revenue receipts of 1831 to be £11,611 sterling; I repeat, there ought to be annually laid before Parliament a detail of the revenue and expenditure of every colony, as is now done for India.

PROPERTY TAX IN DEMERARA AND ESSEQUIBO FOR 1830.*

VALUATION OF PRODUCE, AND				RATE OF TAXATION ON PRODUCE.		
Sugar	91,052,251 lbs.	at 2½ s.	f. 10,310,867	at 2½ f.	per 100 lbs.	f. 154,603
Rum (proof 24)	2,411,340 gals.	— 14	1,687,938	— 21	— 100 gals.	25,319
Do. (do. 22)	90,573 do.	— 16	16,458	— 24	—	346
Do. (do. 21)	111,917 do.	— 18	101,625	— 27	—	1,524
Do. (do. 20)	360,430 do.	— 19	342,408	— 28½	—	5,136
Do. (do. 19)	423,248 do.	— 20	423,248	— 30	—	6,348
Do. (do. 18)	61,230 do.	— 22	67,353	— 33	—	1,010
Molasses ..	2,288,737 do.	— 8	915,494	— 12	—	13,732
Coffee	4,555,789 lbs.	— 5	1,138,947	— 7½	100 lbs.	17,084
Cotton	1,217,269 do.	— 6½	395,812	— 9¾	—	5,934
Plantains sold .	in value	— ..	526,424	— 1½ pr. ct. on	526,424 9	7,896
Cattle do. .	do.	— ..	64,844	— do.	64,644 0	972
Amt. of Income returned for Taxation			f. 3,500,000	Producing, at 1½ per Cent.		f. 202,368
		Total	f. 19,491,438			Total f. 532,292

Exclusive of the taxes raised by the Combined Court, denominated the colony taxes, there is a tax of *f.* 3.10. per head, paid on all working slaves, and *f.* 1 per head on children from three to twelve years; this is called the King's tax,† and is under the sole control of the Governor; besides which a revenue is derived by grants of crown land, on which acre money is paid, which is likewise paid into this chest. The revenue arising from these sources amounts to about £12,000 per annum, one half of the following salaries are

* Abstract of the total yearly revenue and expenditure of the King's Chest at Demerara and Essequibo, from January 1819, to December 1826.

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1819	£ 12,596	£ 11,660
1820	13,234	11,255
1821	13,527	11,702
1822	6,353	11,250
1823	12,805	11,853
1824	12,651	13,295
1825	23,493	15,278
1826	10,628	14,635
	£ 103,290	£ 100,931

In 1826 the King's taxes were productive as follows:—Capitation tax 10,050*l.*; fees paid into the chest by the President 379*l.*; acre money, 122*l.*; licenses to wood-cutters, 62*l.* The capitation tax and acre-money are levied under the authority of the Lieutenant-Governor and Court of Policy; the licenses to wood-cutters are granted by the Lieutenant-Governor solely, and are paid for at so much per annum, according to the value of the lots leased.

† Of *Berbice*, I can only obtain the following details of finance:—For eight years ending 1826, the revenue £134,482; expenditure, £141,308—deficiency, £6,825. Supplied by an issue of paper currency.

paid from this fund; Governor, President of the Court of Justice, Protector of Slaves, besides various other officers, who hold appointments under the crown, but which have little or no duties attached to them, several of which have been lately abolished.

Expenditure. The disbursement of the sums levied according to the foregoing account for Demerara and Essequibo is thus given for 1830, the latest year before me.

Amount remitted, Hall, M'Garel, and Co. for balance due to 31st December, £2,284. 6*s*. 5*d*.—*f*. 31,980. 10. 0; Amount remitted, Hall, M'Garel and Co. for cost of new paper money, &c. £358. 10*s*. 8*d*.—4,302. 8. 0.; provisions for religious establishments, 14,084. 9. 0.; repairs of the court house, 9,000. 0. 0.; cost of the new public buildings, 197,584. 0. 0; extraordinary expenses, 22,064. 2. 0.; contingent arrears, 3,975. 5. 0.; repairs of public buildings, 13,981. 16. 0.; balance of a negro sold and credited last year, 190. 10. 0.; amount of militia fines paid, 100. 0. 0.; amount of taxes refunded, twice paid, 148. 0. 0.; table money, 39,678. 15. 0.; fixed annual salaries, 297,425. 0. 0.; annuities, 13,194. 0. 0.; colony jail expenses, 17,703. 10. 0.; house hire, 21,004. 0. 0.; expenses of justice, 30,014. 5. 0.; militia expenses, 6,913. 19. 0.; allowances and rations to the Indians, 24,034. 6. 0.; colony house expenses, 18,636. 0. 0.; colony hospital expenses, 7,403. 15. 0.; printing expenses, 6,238. 10. 0.; vote to surgeon of the tread-mill, 1,400. 0. 0.; contingent repairs of colonial barracks. 9,857. 15. 0.; recording manumissions, 4,800. 0. 0.; additional vote to Mr. Veret, 1,200. 0. 0.; vote in aid of free schools, 2,100. 0. 0.; amount voted to the proprietors of lots in America street, 4,256. 0. 0.; amount paid to Captain Luckie for a lot of land, 1,400. 0. 0.; expences of steam boat ferry stelling, 4,471. 15. 0.; repairs of sea dam, 320. 0. 0.; expenses of the light-house, 6,078. 12. 8.; ditto main roads, 9,000. 0. 0.; ditto beacons, 2,562. 0. 0.; ditto and renewal of public stellings, 10,645. 0. 0.; triennial presents to the Indians, 16,500. 0. 0.; repairs of public bridges,

1,007, 4. 0.; expenses of bush expeditions, 591. 18. 0.; the receiver's commission, 22,000. 0. 0.;—total *f.* 877,947. 4. 8.

Among the fixed salaries (that is those which are not altered from year to year) are, the Lieutenant Governor 35,000 *g.** (sterling, £2,500.); the President of the Court of Justice, 21,000 *g.* (£1,500.); first Fiscal, 25,000 *g.*; second Ditto, 15,000 *g.* (The table money to the officers of the King's regiments and to the Governor has been recently reduced;) six Post-holders have 13,200 *g.* (each 2,200); and four Assistants to ditto, 2,792 *g.* The Ministers of St. Paul's, St. Swithin's, St. John's, St. Luke's, St. Mary's, St. Marks, St. Peter's, St. James', St. Matthew's, and Trinity Parishes, have each 6,000 *g.*; the Minister of St. George's, 5,000 *g.*; the Roman Catholic Clergyman in George Town, 9,450 *g.*; the Adjutant General of Militia, 6,000 *g.*; the Colony Housekeeper, 6,000 *g.*; the Colonial Agent in London, 5,600 *g.*; the Protector of Slaves, 7,000 *g.*; the Accountant in the Financial Department, 7,200 *g.*; &c.

MONETARY SYSTEM.—The monies of account in British Guyana are—guilders, stivers and pennings; sixteen pennings one stiver, twenty stivers one guilder.

English	Guilder.	Dutch Stivers.	Pennings.
Half-a-crown	= 1	15	0
One shilling	0	14	0
Sixpence	0	7	0
One penny	0	1	4
Half-penny	0	0	10
Farthing	0	0	5

Pass at these rates by virtue of a proclamation of the Governor.

The Par of Exchange is 12 *f.* per £. sterling; but for many years it has been at 14 *f.* per £. except for the year 1832, and part of 31 and 33, when it ranged as high as

* The other half of the Governors' salary is paid from what is termed the King's chest, the funds of which arise from licenses for wood-cutting, lands granted, capitation tax on slaves, &c.

16.10 *f.* per £.; it is now at 14 *f.* per £. and which is the rate that the Governor's salary is paid, and all other officers of the Crown who have a fixed sterling salary.

The metallic money in circulation consists of Spanish dollars; three guilders equal to a dollar.

The Colonial silver coinage, consists of three-guilder pieces, two-guilder ditto, and one-guilder ditto, and ten-stiver and five-stiver pieces.

The paper currency is secured on funded property and Colonial security, and amounts to 2,199,970 guilders. The money invested in the three per cent. Consols and Bank Stock nearly cover the paper money of Demerara and Essequibo in circulation. Notes of twenty joes are equal to 440 guilders, and proportioned down to one joe, which is equal to twenty-two guilders.

AMOUNT OF PROPERTY IN GUYANA. It is difficult in any community to ascertain the amount of property in a given place, or for a fixed period, partly from its fluctuating nature, partly from its relative value — that which may be worth £1,000 at one time, and in one country, being scarcely worth more than half the sum if attempted to be realized in cash for transmission to another place. In every instance, therefore, where the value of property is given in the *History of the British Colonies*,* it must be considered in the light of an approximation to truth, and for the purpose of affording a comparison between one colony and another. The following detail will probably afford the most correct view of the subject.

* I had intended to give a table of the property in every W. I. possession; I find however that considerable space would be occupied therewith; I would therefore request the reader to observe, that the data given on the next page will enable him to find the amount of property created, &c. by referring to the statement of annual produce, and calculating accordingly.

Value of Property Annually Created, and Moveable and Immoveable, in British Guyana, calculated in sterling Money, and excluding Slaves.*

PROPERTY ANNUALLY CREATED.										PROPERTY MOVEABLE AND IMMOVEABLE.								
										Productive Land.			Private Property.					
Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Plantains.	Animal Food and Fish.	Vegetable Food.	Merchandise made.	Income & Sundries.	Cultivated and Granted.	Uncultivated.	Public Property.	Dwelling Houses, &c.	Stores.	Live Stock.	Coin in Circulation.	Total of Property Annually Created.	Total of Moveable and Immoveable Property.
cwts. 1,000,000 at 20s. £1,000,000	gallons. 4,800,000 at 1s. 6d. 360,000	gallons. 2,000,000 at 10d. 125,000	lbs. 4,000,000 at 7d. 116,666	lbs. 3,000,000 at 7d. 87,500	Value at £4 per annum all round, 400,000	at £5 per annum all round, 500,000	at £1 per annum all round, 100,000	800,000	600,000	acres. 2,000,000 at £7. 14,000,000	acres. 22,000000† at 2s. 6d. 4,000,000	Wharfs, Forts, Barracks, Churches, Gaols, Roads,‡ Canals,§ &c. 1,000,000	Clothes, Plate, Furniture, &c. 1,500,000	Wharfs, Boats, Rafts, Merchandise, Canals, Roads, &c. 3,000,000	Cattle, Horses, Swine, &c. 500,000	Gold and Silver, 20,000	3,769,166	24,020,000

* The value of property expended in purchasing slaves has actually amounted in the aggregate, at £120 each, to £9,960,000!

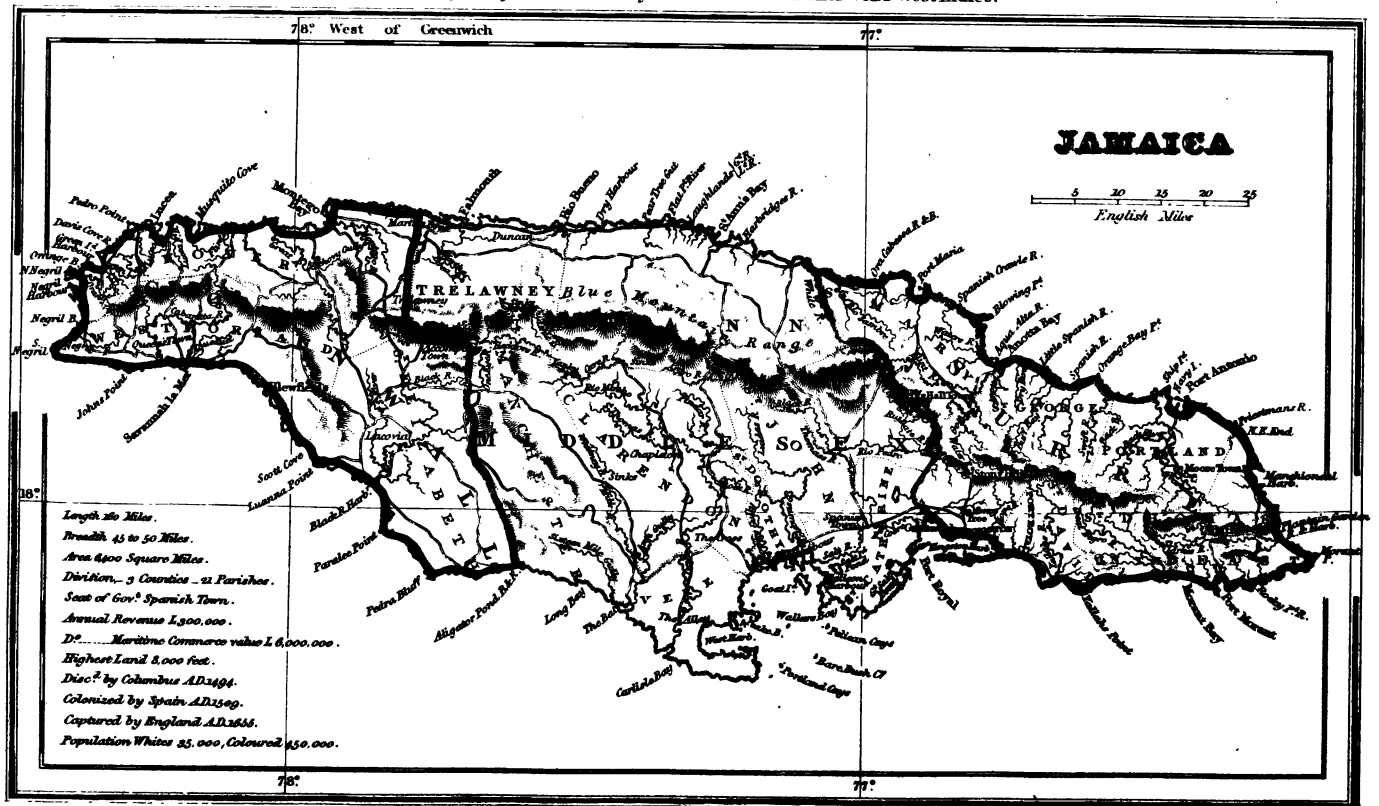
† I estimate the productive uncultivated land in British Guyana at 50,000 square miles; thus excluding nearly one half the territory as barren, a circumstance which is over estimated, in order not to exaggerate the value of property.

‡ Full two hundred and fifty miles of *public* roads, averaging £600 a mile.

§ Some idea may be formed of the labour employed in drainage, and the capital required to establish it, when it is stated that thirty miles of *private* canals, twelve feet wide by five deep, and two hundred miles of drains, two feet wide by eighteen inches deep, are required for the drainage and transportation of the canes to the mill of an estate producing seven hundred hogsheads of sugar.

General View and Future Prospects. The importance of our possessions in South America may be gathered from the foregoing detail. The social condition of the mass of the population is now in too great a state of transition from slavery to freedom to admit of much speculation as to the future; and, reserving my general views of the whole on our West Indian possessions for the termination of the volume, I conclude with observing, that British Guyana offers a wide and fruitful arena for the industry of the emigrant, the enterprize of the merchant, and the science of the geologist and natural philosopher. Millions of acres of fertile land, now lying waste, are adapted to the cultivation of every tropical product of which the mother country stands in need. Cotton, tobacco, opium, silk, pepper, rice, indigo, timber, drugs, dyes, and spices, may be raised and exported, to an incalculable extent, with benefit to all who engage in these pursuits. There is wanting to develope the resources of so fine a country, the granting of a free government to the colonists—the disposal of the crown lands, at a nominal quit rent, to intending emigrants—the reduction of the duties in England on articles of colonial growth and manufacture, or the permission being given to the Colonists to trade with any European nation they choose, on their own terms. Surrounded, as British Guyana is, by the continental possessions of France, Spain, Holland, Portugal, &c. it behoves the British nation to view with interest, and even anxiety, the progress of our colonial power on one of the most eligible spots of the American hemisphere.

For Montgomery Martin's History of the British Colonies Vol.2 West Indies.



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J.B.C.Walker Sculp.

CHAPTER II.

JAMAICA.

HISTORY, PHYSICAL ASPECT, MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, GEOLOGY, SOIL, CLIMATE, MINERAL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, CIVIL AND MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS AND STATIONS—COMMERCE, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, MONIES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE—THE PRESS, EDUCATION AND RELIGION, VALUE OF PROPERTY, SOCIAL STATE AND FUTURE PROSPECTS.

LOCALITY.—Jamaica, (Xaymaca* or St. Jago†), a magnificent island, one hundred and sixty miles long, by forty-five broad, containing 4,000,000 acres, and situate between the parallels of 17.35 to 18.30 N. Lat. and 76 to 78.40 W. Long.‡ four thousand miles S. W. of England, ninety miles W. of St. Domingo, the same distance S. of Cuba, and four hundred and thirty-five miles N. of Carthagena, on the S. American continent; was discovered by Columbus on the morning of the 3d of May 1494, during his second expedition to the New World.

GENERAL HISTORY. When first visited by the Spaniards Jamaica was found to be densely peopled with Indians, resembling in appearance and language the inhabitants of the contiguous mainland; numerous canoes put off from the shore to meet Columbus, and resistance was offered by a large

* The isle was thus called by the Indians, signifying, in the language of Florida, abundance of wood and water.

† According to Oldmixon this name was given by Columbus, on his second visit to the island, in honour of St. Jago, *alias* St. James, the patron Saint of Spain.

‡ The latitude and longitude of the principal ports are—

East Part	Long. W. 76.53	Lat. N. 17.56
West Part	78.22½	18.16
South Cape of Portland,		17.43¾
North Part,		18.33
Centre of the Isle	77.8	18.19½

party of armed Indians, when the Spanish boats proceeded to obtain soundings in the haven, now called Port Maria.

The voyagers then entered another harbour, named *Ora Cabeca*, and on experiencing a similar demonstration of opposition, several *arbaletes* were discharged at the Indians, who fled on witnessing the slaughter of their companions, and permitted the quiet landing of Columbus. The admiral, (who took formal possession of the island for his sovereign,) remained ten days among the astonished natives, and then (18th May 1494), sailed for Cuba. On the 22nd of the ensuing month, Columbus again approached Jamaica, off Rio Bueno, and surveyed the coast (without landing), till the 20th of August, when he reached San Miguel, now Cape Tiburon. For eight years from this period nothing further was heard of Jamaica, and the peaceful Indians were yet a little while left in the tranquil occupation of their lovely and happy home. In 1502, (14th July), Columbus, then on his 4th voyage, sailed from Hispaniola for Jamaica, but contrary and boisterous winds compelled his sheltering at Guanaja, or the isle of Pines. The succeeding year saw the first European settlement on our present colony, the result of necessity, rather than choice. Returning from the disasterous expedition to Veragua, Columbus (with his son and brother and two ships), was driven for shelter to Maxaca, on the S. coast of Cuba, whence after imperfectly repairing his vessels, he again put to sea, but was forced, by stress of weather, and in a sinking state, on an uninhabited part of the N. coast of Jamaica, where neither water nor provisions were procurable; once more the intrepid navigator turned his shattered prows to the faithless deep, the tradewind drove him down the coast to the westward, and at St. Ann's Bay, (called by the devout and weather-beaten mariner Santa Gloria), the sinking vessels were run on shore for the purpose of preserving the lives of the almost exhausted adventurers, who, protected by a reef of rocks, lashed the wrecks together, and canopied beneath a canvas awning, found present shelter and repose.

Friendly communications were opened with the unsuspect-

ing Indians, who supplied the ship-wrecked seamen with abundance of provisions in exchange for beads, bells, or other trifles. Columbus dispatched Diego Mendez, the secretary to the squadron, in company with a Genoese named Fieski, in two canoes (each furnished with six Castilians and ten Indians) to Ovando, the Governor of Hispaniola, then the capital of the Spanish western isles, distant 200 leagues from Jamaica, and with a strong adverse wind in their course. Ovando, the Governor of Hispaniola, was the inveterate enemy of Columbus, and availed himself of the occasion of his rival's misfortune, to heap insult and injury on the unfortunate admiral; a vessel was dispatched from Hispaniola, to mock the sufferers with condolence and ironical regrets of inability to afford assistance, the commander of the reconnoitering ship (which purposely lay outside the reefs of Santa Gloria) having been expressly selected on account of his being the personal enemy of Columbus. The suffering Spaniards, under the impression that they were neglected by the Viceregal and Home Authorities, by reason of their fidelity to Columbus, mutinied at the instigation of the brothers Pooras, (one a commander, and the other a military treasurer), Columbus was accused of witchcraft, and several attempts to assassinate him as he lay confined to his bed with the gout were only frustrated by the bravery and presence of mind of his brother Bartholomew; the mutineers seized on ten canoes which the admiral had been preparing, plundered the natives of provisions wherever they could be found, forced several to accompany them in their efforts to cross the sea to Hispaniola, and threw them overboard with their baggage to lighten the fragile barks in which they several times endeavoured to gain the seat of Supreme Government, and when compelled to return by the storm to Jamaica, it was but to lay waste and destroy the unoffending Indians, and to make fresh attacks on Columbus and his few faithful followers. At length, after losing several of their comrades in a battle with the admiral's friends, headed by Diego Columbus, the renegades sued for permission to return to their allegiance, and in a month

after (28th June, 1504,) Columbus bade a final adieu to the Jamaica shores in vessels prepared for his relief by Mendez and Fieski, whom he had dispatched from Santa Gloria to Hispaniola and Spain (as before stated) soon after the shipwreck of his vessels. The peaceful Indians of Jamaica were now left for a brief period in the quiet possession of their lovely isle, but in three years after the death of Christopher Columbus, i. e. in 1509, the Spanish Court divided the Darien Government between Alfonzo d'Ojeda and Diego Nicuesa, authorizing them jointly and severally to make what use they pleased of the unoccupied island of Jamaica as a garden, whence provisions might be obtained, and as a nursery whence *slaves* might be procured to work in the mines. The result of such orders, in such times, may be easily imagined; a contest arose between the provincial Governors who should make the most of the unfortunate islanders and their country; towns and villages were laid waste and burned; the slightest resistance was returned with indiscriminate slaughter; the caciques, or chiefs, murdered in cold blood; the women, who tempted the lust of the invaders, became victims to their sensuality; tortures of the most infernal nature were resorted to for the purposes of forcing a discovery of that which the Spaniards eagerly thirsted for—gold; and the adults and children of Jamaica who were not fortunate enough to escape to the recesses of the mountains, there to perish, lingering of famine, were borne away into captivity, to wear out a brief existence in the rayless mines where their merciless oppressors sought wealth at an incalculable sacrifice of human life and misery,—justly may we exclaim with the poet—

quid non mortalia pectora cogis,
Auri sacra fames!

While the rival governors, Diego and Nicuesa, were disputing about the adjudication of Jamaica, Diego Columbus (the son of the great navigator) stepped in to assert his prior claim, and accordingly despatched, in 1509, Don Juan d'Esquimel, with seventy men, to take possession of the island and form a settlement at Santa Gloria, a spot sacred

to his filial affections, by reason of the shipwreck and sufferings of his father. The seat of government was fixed on the banks of a small rivulet, termed *Sevilla Nueva,* to commemorate the successful termination of his suit against the crown, as recently decided by the council of the Indies; and Ferdinand, another son of Columbus, was despatched from Spain to establish a monastery, and assist in the extension of the new colony. The unwarlike Indians of Jamaica did not long offer resistance to the government which they found disposed to settle amongst them, they sank by degrees into the condition of serfs and slaves, and were regarded as mere ministers to the pleasures of their white brethren, who had now usurped the sole occupancy of the soil. San Domingo, then in all its glory, graced by the presence of royal blood, and many of the nobility of Castile, and the seat of fashion in the new world, communicated its luxuriance and taste to *Sevilla Nueva* (now called *Sevilla d'Oro,* from the gold brought thither by the natives,) and a splendid city arose, rivalling in magnificence the towns of the mother country, but of which not a vestige remains, save the memory of the name, —the cane fields, on the site of the former capital, being still termed *Seville.*

The chroniclers of the day represent the government of Don Juan d'Esquimel as mild in character towards the natives, and fostering in regard to the culture of cotton, the introduction of the sugar cane, vine,* and European cattle, which flourished in the virgin soil, and fruitful vallies, and savannahs of the island. The cotton wool was celebrated in commerce for its quality as well as quantity; and the beautiful fabrics woven therefrom by the Indians became a source of wealth to the Spaniards, which, if they had been attended to, would have proved of more lasting value than the precious metals, in the avaricious search for which every thing living and dead was sacrificed. Unhappily for the Indians, the rule of Don Esquimel was brief; he died, and was buried at Sevilla d'Oro, the beautiful bay on the south of the island

* Claret was then made in Jamaica.

now called *Old Harbour*, where he had fixed his estate as an eligible ship-building settlement, inheriting his name, and bequeathing to posterity the remembrance of a man whose character offered a bright contrast to that of his sanguinary successors. Francisco de Garay, a Spaniard, who had long been a fortunate partner of the celebrated Diaz in the famed mine of St. Christopher, in Hispaniola, and whose insatiable avarice and cruelty was notorious, succeeded Esquimel as lieutenant of Diego Columbus, in the government of Jamaica, which, in 1519 (ten years after its settlement), had risen so rapidly as to have been enabled to fit out three vessels, manned by two hundred and seventy men, to endeavour to take possession of a territory named Panuco, on the main land. In 1521, Sevilla d'Oro began to send off branches from the parent stock, and two new towns were founded—the one on the Bay of Blewfields, named Oristan, from a place in Sardinia; the other, Melilla (supposed to be on the site where Martha-brae now stands), so called after a small town in Barbary.

The death of Diego Columbus (who, in 1523, had founded St. Jago *de la Vega*, or St. Jago of the Plains, to distinguish it from St. Jago *de Cuba*), in 1526, checked the improvement of the island; and the cruelties of the Governor, Don Pedro d'Esquimel, whom Las Casas declares to have been the greatest destroyer of the Indians, added to the destructive piratical warfare carried on by French corsairs, under the name of *Flibustiers*—all tended to cloud the rising prosperity of Jamaica. The intelligent author of the *Annals of Jamaica*, the Rev. G.W. Bridges, says, that the consequence of such proceedings was, that the settlement of Oristan was destroyed in its infancy, Melilla was abandoned almost as soon as built, and the capital became the repeated prey of a lawless banditti. Its buildings, many of them the creation of monastic munificence, were suspended—its trade interrupted—and, such as were not bound by office to the seat of government, deserted their half-finished walls to seek a safer retreat in the southern districts of the island. The *Jamaica Almanac* says, that St.

Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, was founded by Diego Columbus, in 1523; but Mr. Bridges states its origin to have been owing to the affrighted Spaniards, who fled over the mountain range, in 1538, in order to breath in security from the plundering attacks of the French flibustiers, or corsairs; while superstition suggested the name of the new capital, under the impression that the patron saint of the island had been offended at the name (St. Jago) given by Columbus having been outlived by the native cognomen, *Xaymaca*, or Jamaica. Security of person and property, the main spring of national wealth and happiness, soon contributed to raise St. Jago de la Vega into a flourishing city: the neighbouring savannahs were quickly cultivated, the manufacture of sugar* rapidly extended, and, in sixteen years from its foundation (1555), the capital of Jamaica gave the title of Marquis to the grandson of the extraordinary mariner who may be truly said to have discovered a new world for the purpose of stimulating into renewed energy the enterprize and intelligence of the old. The wars between Charles V. and Henry of France were carried on in America by the latter under piratical leaders; and, after a desperate attack of the flibustiers, in 1554, who massacred all the inhabitants, sculptured arches and bare walls alone remain as evidence of the pristine splendour of the once celebrated city of Sevilla d'Oro.

In 1558, it is stated that the native inhabitants of Jamaica had entirely perished,† and the Spaniards cultivated the lands in the neighbourhood of St. Jago de la Vega, by means of the few slaves which (says Mr. Bridges) they were enabled to purchase; whence they were derived the annalist has not recorded. In 1580, owing to the junction of the crowns of Spain and Portugal, the territorial right of

* In 1523 there were thirty sugar mills established in the island.

† Gage, writing in 1637, says, 'This island was once very populous, but is now almost destitute of Indians, for the Spaniards have slain in it more than 60,000; insomuch that women, as well here as on the continent, did kill their children before they had given them birth, that the issues of their bodies might not serve so cruel a nation.'

Jamaica was vested in the royal house of Braganza, and the Portuguese, who emigrated to the island, gave new life and vigour to the settlement. In 1587 Jamaica was so over run with the bread of horned cattle, swine, and horses, originally imported from Hispaniola, that a considerable trade arose in provisions, lard, and hides; the cultivation of sugar which had been neglected after the destruction of Sevilla d'Oro, was resumed; and ginger, tobacco, and other articles were added to the planters' commercial stock. In 1605 the famed wealth of Jamaica induced a predatory incursion on the settlement from Sir Anthony Shirley, who was cruising in the neighbourhood with a large fleet, but the invaders retired after plundering only those parts of the island that were most accessible.

In 1644, Col. or Capt. William Jackson, made a descent upon Jamaica from the windward islands, at the head of five hundred men; the Spaniards fought bravely at Passage Fort, but were beaten, and compelled to pay a large sum of money for the preservation of the capital. Little, or indeed nothing authentic, is known of the internal history of the island up to the period of the British Conquest in 1655; the acquisitions of Spain on the Continent, and the vast quantity of precious metals thence derived, soon induced the neglect of the insular possessions of the Mother Country for the sake of the more shewy, but less substantial advantage, derived by the conquest of Peru and Mexico; all accounts, however, agree in representing the Hidalgos of Jamaica as leading a life of slothful luxuriance; for the latter fifty years the N. side of the island had been abandoned and allowed to grow into dense woods, the population at the time of the British Conquest was stated by Venables to be no more than 1,500 Spaniards and Portuguese, with about an equal number of Mulattoes and negro slaves, and the higher class of inhabitants was composed of, only eight families, who may be said to have divided the country between them into eight *hatos* or districts.

Cromwell, no less with a desire to rid himself of those dis-

affected towards his government, than with a hope of humbling the power of the Spanish court, which favoured the restoration of Charles,—aided by the popular feeling in England against the Spaniards, for the condemnation of six hundred peaceable English settlers at St. Christopher's, to work in subterraneous bondage in the mines of Mexico in 1629,—anxious to avenge the murder of a small English colony, who had quietly settled on the unoccupied island of Tortuga eight years after the peace of 1630, and a repetition of the same bloody tragedy twelve years afterwards at Santa Cruz, in which, as at Tortuga, even the women and children were put to the sword,—and urged, moreover, by a desire to establish the maritime supremacy of England, by the foundation of colonies, and by putting an end to the exclusive right of navigating the American seas, as claimed by Ferdinand and Isabella;—influenced, I say, by these and other motives, Cromwell fitted out a large armament, which he placed under the joint command of General Venables and Admiral Penn, with three controlling commissioners, for the purpose of seizing on Hispaniola at the moment of declaring hostilities against Spain in Europe. The expedition was hastily despatched, the ranks of the army filled from the gaols and prisons in England and Ireland, and the fleet so hurried out to sea that the store-ships were left behind; the capture of Hispaniola was prevented by the vigilance of the Spaniards, but to make amends for the discomfiture, Jamaica was attacked by a force of 6,500 men, on the 3d of May 1665, after being one hundred and forty-six years in the possession of Spain. Little resistance was offered, negotiations were entered into for the British occupation, and skilfully prolonged by the Spaniards, until the latter removed all their valuables, so that when St. Jago de la Vega was entered by the British forces, about ten days after the landing, nothing but bare walls were found, the inhabitants having carried off all their goods to the mountains, where, aided by their slaves, and by occasional reinforcements from Cuba, they long held out, but after some years were gradually annihilated, par-

doned, or permitted to emigrate. Spain vainly endeavoured to recover Jamaica, which some skill and energy would have enabled her to do, owing to the disaffection and disorganization of the British army and occupants; but the rapid acquirement of wealth, without the aid of industry, and almost solely by means of violence and craft, is as fatal to the strength and happiness of a nation as it is to that of an individual, and the Spanish government, after several and unsuccessful efforts, abandoned all further prospects of repossessing themselves of the island. During the early British occupation much inconvenience and distress (as is the case in all infant settlements), was experienced, some of the Spaniards and their negroes still occupied the mountains,* and martial law was the sole judicature for a series of years, during which period little progress was made in cultivation, the soldiers being disinclined to turn their swords into ploughshares.

Under the government of Colonel D'Oyley, Jamaica became the head quarters of the pirates, or buccaneers, who infested these seas, and derived inordinate wealth from the plunder of the Spanish colonies and the fleets laden with the precious metals on their return to Europe; it is stated that

* Colonel D'Oyley, the Governor of Jamaica in 1661, wrote to Secretary Nicholas, that a party of soldiers had just brought in from the mountains about 100 negroes, the remainder of some 2,000, who had infested the place since their arrival. He adds, (and it corroborates what I demonstrated in my work on the *Taxation of the British Empire* respecting the Parliamentary Government of the revolution) "*the soldiers have received no pay since they came.*"—*State Paper Office.* It would appear that bloodhounds were now introduced into Jamaica, and not, as was supposed, for the first time by Lord Balcarras. The two following Jamaica orders respecting bloodhounds and Bibles, afford a curious picture of the manners of the times:—

August 14, 1656. "An order signed Edward D'Oyley, for the distribution to the army of 1701 Bibles."

August 26, 1659. "Order issued this day unto Mr. Peter Pugh, Treasurer, to pay unto John Hoy the summe of twenty pounds sterling, out of the impost-money, to pay for fifteene doggs, brought by him for the hunting of the negroes."

the tables and household utensils of the colonists were of silver and gold, and their horses sometimes shod with the former metal, loosely nailed on, to indicate the abundance and contempt for slight losses of wealth. Negro slaves appear to have been imported by the British in pursuance of the policy of their predecessors, and in 1659 the population of the island was rated at 4,500 whites, and 1,400 negroes. Of the white population a chief proportion must have been outlaws and soldiers; for, according to the Board of Trade and State Paper Office Records,—"Two hundred of the rebels taken at Sedgemoor were transported to Jamaica;" and the military strength of the island in 1662 consisted of five regiments, containing 2,083 men at arms; that emigration from England began early is nevertheless correct; Sir Thomas Modyford, in a letter dated Jamaica, January 30th, 1664, mentions the number of settlers recently arrived, at 987, of which 855 came from England, and the remainder from Barbadoes.

At the restoration Charles sought to allay the feuds existing in the island between the republican and royalist parties in Jamaica; the restraints of martial law were abolished, courts of session formed, and a council of 12 elected by the inhabitants to aid the government convened; a partial survey took place, 12 districts were marked out, laws framed by the council for the government of the island, and taxes levied for the maintenance thereof; every encouragement was held out to new planters, and the wise regulations of Cromwell, *exempting planters or 'adventurers' from paying excise or customs on any produce, &c. exported to Jamaica, or imported from thence into the dominions of the commonwealth, for* 10 *years,* was allowed; together with the abolition of hindrance or impressment on ships or mariners bound for Jamaica.

On the accession of Lord Windsor to the chief authority, in September, 1662, a municipal government was formed; judges of session and magistracy appointed; the militia established; the island divided into seven parishes, and patents of land in free soccage granted. It is interesting to examine

the origin of our colonial legislatures. According to a letter in the State Paper Office from Colonel (afterwards Sir Thomas) Modyford, dated Barbadoes, February 16th, 1651, addressed to Bradshaw (the regicide), the following suggestions occur, relative to the island sending representatives to Parliament:—'The great difficulty is, (which your wisdoms will easily overcome) how we shall have a representative with you in your government and our parliament: to demand to have burgesses with yours to sit and vote in matters concerning England may seem immoderate; but to desire that two representatives be chosen by this island to advise and consent to matters that concern this place, I presume may be both just and necessary; for if laws be imposed upon us without our personall or implied consent, we cannot be accounted better than slaves, which, as all Englishmen abhorre to see, so I am confident you detest to have them: This is so cleare that I shall not need to enforce it with argument, neither enter upon particulars for the good of this place,' &c. &c.

It may be gathered from this that the home authorities preferred granting colonial legislatures to colonial representatives in the British Parliament.

In January, 1664, the first assembly of Jamaica was convened by the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Charles Littleton, in conformity with the power of his commission from England; it consisted of 30 members, who chose a speaker (Mr. Robert Freeman) the 20th of January, and continued their sittings to the middle of February, then adjourned to May, and afterwards resumed them at Port Royal; thus dividing its session between the seats of Government and trade. This early establishment of a popular legislative assembly was attended with signal advantages; laws suited to the community were framed, taxes raised independent of the Governor and parent state, and the acts of assembly were sent for confirmation to the King. Disputes subsequently broke out between the Governor, Sir Thomas Modyford, and the house of assembly; but those who appreciate the blessing of legislative representation in unison with taxation, will think lightly of dif-

ferences between the party desiring the exercise of uncontrollable authority, when balanced by the calm and efficient power of a chamber freely elected by the intelligence and wealth of a community.*

For sixty-four years the House of Assembly of Jamaica carried on a noble contest to secure the means of defending itself against tyrannical acts on the part of the Crown, and for controlling the expenditure of their own supplies. Up to 1670, when peace was ratified with Spain, Jamaica was the head quarters and rendezvous of all the pirates, corsairs, and buccaneers of the New World, encouraged by many of the Governors of Jamaica.† The celebrated, the notorious Morgan,‡ as well as other bandits, contributed to

* Of Colonel Samuel Long, who nobly opposed the arbitrary measures of the Crown, endeavoured to be enforced through the then Governor, the Earl of Carlisle, in 1679, the following notice occurs in a paper in the Board of Trade:—

Nov. 23, 1676. "His Excellency," Lord Vaughan, "haveing acquainted the Council of the present vacancy of the Chief Justice's place, and that, in this emergency, he could not propose any other than Lieutenant-Colonel Samuel Long unto them, wherein his Lordship desired their advice, all unanimously declared that they were fully satisfied with the great abilities of Lieutenant-Colonel Long to performe and discharge the said trust and employment, and did approve of his Excellency's choice."

This distinguished colonist died possessed of nearly 20,000 acres in Jamaica. His descendant, Mr. Edward Long, was the accomplished and learned author of the history of that island, and to the grandson of that gentleman I am indebted for several valuable memoranda.

† Sir Thomas Lynch, in 1664, considered the calling in of the privateers 'a remote and hazardous experiment.' 'If they cannot get English commissions,' he says, 'they will get French or Portuguese, although they be dangerous rogues.' Sir Thomas Modyford, in 1665, acknowledges the receipt of a letter from Lord Arlington, directing that 'privateers be handled quietly for the future, and be reclaimed by degrees; encouraging them to return home and take service in H. M. fleet against the Dutch.' *State Paper Office.*

‡ This extraordinary adventurer was a native of Wales, born in 1635, of a junior branch of the great clan of the Morgans of Tredegar, but by daring courage, talents, and successes, became advanced to the dignity of Lieutenant-Governor of Jamaica. Having no inclination to follow his father's agricultural pursuit, Morgan bade him adieu, wandered

pour a vast flood of wealth into Jamaica, the prize of their infamous marauding expeditions.

to Bristol, and embarked for Barbadoes, where, according to the custom of the times, he bound himself as a servant, or sold his services, for the space of four years. As soon, however, as he gained his freedom, Morgan went to Jamaica, where the temptations held out for the rapid acquirement of wealth induced him to join the West India buccaneers, who considered their pursuits legitimate because the Spaniards refused to be at peace with other nations within the tropics, where they asserted Englishmen had no right to settle. War was declared against the Spaniards, by beat of drum, at Port Royal, 27th February, 1666; and Morgan, by his daring intrepidity, soon brought himself into notice, made several successful cruises, and secured a share of the spoil. Seeing the excesses and improvidence of his companions, he profited by the example, and lived so moderately, that he soon amassed a sufficient sum of money towards purchasing a vessel, in conjunction with some of his comrades, who elected him their commander, and he returned to Port Royal with several prizes from the Bay of Campeche. Mansfeldt, the prince of pirates, who was then preparing a formidable expedition against the Spaniards, pitched upon him to be his vice-admiral; and in a short time, with fifteen ships and five hundred men, he stormed and plundered the island of St. Catherine (Providence), thirty-five leagues from Chagres river, and, after various successes in different places, next proceeded, in 1668, with a fleet of nine ships and four hundred and sixty men against Puerto Bello. This city was defended by three castles, two of which were so situated that no hostile boat could pass, and the town itself was well garrisoned. It was night when he arrived, and, being acquainted with all the avenues of the city, he sailed in canoes up the river to Puerto Pontin, where he anchored, and, guided by one who had been a prisoner there, reached Estera longa de mar, whence he marched to the outposts of the city. After securing the sentinel, he assailed the castle with such resistless impetuosity, that the Governor was compelled to submit. Being unable to spare men to guard his prisoners, Morgan is accused by the Spaniards of having enclosed them all in a large dungeon, fired the magazine and blown up the fortress with every Spaniard in it. They then forced the commandant of the city into the remaining fort, who vainly endeavoured, by an incessant cannonade, to prevent the plundering of the town below; but it had no other effect than to urge them to make a quick and sanguinary dispatch. The buccaneers rifled the churches and houses, and stormed the castle at the very mouth of its guns. The carnage of this nocturnal conflict was dreadful. After performing prodigies of valour, Morgan's men became dispirited and faint; but their courage was restored by seeing the English colours waving over the third and only

In 1670, the total white population was 15,198 (vide section on population); the militia muster rolls exhibiting an internal

remaining castle, which another party of these desperadoes had successfully stormed. Our hero commanded the prisoners, they had taken from the religious houses, at the point of the sword, to place the scaling ladders against the walls. The Spanish soldier's duty prevailed over his superstition, and many of the *religieuse* were slain. The pirates, however, mounted the ladders, and the Spaniards, throwing down their arms, begged for mercy. The commandant alone refused to yield, and nobly met his fate in the presence of his wife and daughter. Every species of excess marked the footsteps of the remorseless conquerors during fifteen successive days. A ransom of 100,000 pieces of eight was demanded for the preservation of the town, and paid. After levelling the redoubts which had been raised by the Spaniards, and dismounting their guns, the buccaneers returned to Jamaica with a ransom and plunder of 250,000 pieces of eight and much merchandize. The chroniclers of the day narrate that, on the sea shore at Port Royal, plate, jewels, and other rich effects were literally piled beneath the eaves of the houses for the want of warehouse room. But this immense wealth was soon transferred to others, and the pirates, reduced almost to starvation, constrained their captain to put to sea again, after a few short weeks of riotous debauchery. Morgan was now at the head of a thousand desperate fellows and a fleet of fifteen vessels, to which was added, it is said, the *Oxford* frigate, commanded by Captain E. Collier, sent by Charles II. to aid in the war against the Spaniards. The fleet rendezvoused at the Isle de Vache, in Hispaniola; and Sir William Beeston and Esquemeling relate the following almost incredible circumstance. A council of war was held on board the *Oxford*, on the 2nd January, 1669. The captains remained to dinner, and, while feasting, the frigate, 'by some unknown accident, blew up at once, and killed two hundred and fifty men: *Admiral* Morgan, and those captains that sat on that side of the table that he did, were saved; but those captains on the other side were killed.' This misfortune prevented an attack on Carthagena; but Macaicubo, with Gibraltar (on the Spanish main) was again sacked, and the inhabitants underwent the same cruel torture they experienced at the hands of Solonnois. Failing, however, in this attempt to plunder them, the inhabitants having concealed their valuables in the woods, the pirates wearied and vexed at their unusual ill fortune, retreated from the town. They were waited for by the Spaniards, who were prepared with three men-of-war to obstruct their passage from the lake; and even in this dilemma, when life and death were in the event, Morgan's courage alone remained unshaken. He contrived a fire ship with such ingenuity, that it was impossible for the enemy to recognise her as such. With this he destroyed one

strength of 2,720 men, and the British seamen about the island being 2,500 strong. Fifty-seven sugar works were

of their vessels—the second ran on shore, and the remaining one became an easy prey to the pirates; but, although he had destroyed their fleet, the castle, which they must pass, was impregnable. In vain did he resort to his usual practice in exposing the nuns and friars they had taken prisoners upon the deck, to restrain their countrymen from firing. Finding it utterly useless, he had recourse to a wily stratagem. He withdrew out of the reach of the guns, and, filling his boats with men, they were ordered to row ashore, as if with the design of landing; but, instead of doing so, they concealed themselves at the bottom of the boats, and the boats returned apparently with only two or three men. After doing this several times, the Spaniards, thinking they were going to attack the castle from the land, removed their guns from the sea side to the ramparts, leaving the former almost defenceless. The pirates then by moonlight dropped down with the tide, when opposite the fort, spread every inch of canvass, and saluted the mortified Spaniards as they passed with a few shots, which the governor, completely outwitted, was unable to return; thus again was Jamaica deluged with wealth and benefitted by the prodigality of the pirates. Morgan's reputation was now so great that he was joined by several young men of family from England. After a few months' peace, war was again proclaimed (2nd July, 1670), at Port Royal, against the Spaniards. Morgan received a commission from the Governor to harass the enemy, and sailed with a fleet of thirty-seven sail, carrying two thousand men at arms, besides large crews of good sailors. St. Catherine was recaptured, and kept as a place of retreat. Morgan's vice-admiral (Broadley), with four ships and four hundred men, gained possession, (after losing one hundred men in killed and wounded,) of the town and castle of Chagres. Morgan next sailed to Panama, which, after a desperate conflict, he succeeded in taking possession of; but it, by some accident, took fire, and continued burning several days. Vast quantities of molten gold and silver were found encrusted on the very pavements of the town, and the worth of millions was collected from the wells and fountains, where it had been hastily concealed. With one hundred and seventy-five mules, richly laden with gold, silver, and jewels, Morgan arrived at Chagres. There he made a division of the spoil; but his crew, suspecting him of fraud in the partition, mutinied, and he was glad to escape with two or three ships and 400,000 pieces of eight in specie, with which he arrived in Jamaica. Morgan now gave up his depredations, retired into private life, purchased a plantation, lived upon and improved it, and so effectually recommended himself to public favour, that he was made a naval commander in the service of his King, obtained the honour of knighthood, became President of the Council

established, yielding annually 1,710,000 lbs. of sugar; forty-seven cocoa walks, giving 180,000 lbs. of nuts; and forty-nine indigo works, producing 49,000 lbs. of dye. The indigenous pimento afforded an export annually of 50,000 lbs.; 10,000 bushels of salt were produced from three salt pans;—in six years, 60 tame cattle had increased to 60,000; and sheep, goats, and tame hogs, were innumerable;* cotton, tobacco, arnotto, and other articles, were being attended to; and, in the brief space of fourteen years, amidst numberless misfortunes abroad and at home, Jamaica exhibited a wonderful progress in colonial prosperity.

Sir Thomas Lynch, on his arrival as Governor in 1671, put an end to the privateering system, and directed the attention of the Colonists to the more permanently profitable means of attaining wealth, agriculture and commerce. The assembly (consisting of eighteen representatives) was convened, and the revenue fixed as follows:—land at Port Royal one half-penny per foot; cleared land and savanna, one penny per acre; license to sell liquor, 40s. per annum; brandy and spirits imported, 6d. per gallon; Portuguese and Spanish wines, £4 per ton; beer, 30s. per ton; and mum, at 40s. ditto; British ships, 1s. per ton anchorage; foreign double; the salary of the Governor or Commander-in-Chief fixed at £1000 per annum; £400 to the Lieutenant-Governor; £200 to the

of Jamaica, and thrice filled the office of Lieutenant-Governor. According to some chronicles, the pusillanimity of the British Court, and Morgan's Spanish enemies, however, prevailed so far as to procure a letter from the Secretary of State, ordering him a prisoner to England, where his robust constitution, which the numberless trials to which he had been exposed could not impair, sunk beneath unmerited disgrace. Others assert that he died at Port Royal, in comfortable retirement, and much beloved, the 26th August, 1668; leaving a name which struck terror into Spain, and which records exploits rarely equalled in the annals of British courage.

* The price of provisions had fallen rapidly—for in 1663 Sir Charles Lyttleton, the Lieutenant-Governor, says—"Hogg, which is, planter's food, is sold at 2*d.* per pound—and I have paid here 7*d.*: every thing else does abate almost in proportion."

Major-General; £80 to the Chief Justice; £20 to every Judge; and £10 to his Assistant.

According to documents in the State Paper Office the Assembly, in 1671, consisted of eighteen representatives, and in 1674 Mr. Cranfield, in reply to some queries from his Majesty, stated, that the Council of Jamaica consisted of twelve gentlemen; the Assembly of Representatives elected by the freeholders; two from every parish except from St. Jago and Port Royal, which have the privilege of choosing three. A Chief Court of Judicature sat at St. Jago, sitting every three months with appeals to the Governor as Chancellor, with six inferior courts in different parts of the island, sitting every month, and holding pleas not exceeding £20, except by Justices, and these of any sum whatever. Quarter Sessions, according to the custom of England, were held in every precinct, and an Admiralty Court was established; the domestic armed force of the island consisted of one regiment of cavalry 500 strong, and the infantry regiments containing 5000 men.* The administration of Lord Vaughan commencing in 1677 was termed indulgent, steady and impartial, but the conduct of his successor, the Earl of Carlisle, has been censured as weak, petulant and tyrannical; his efforts to induce the Colonial Assembly to surrender its independence, were happily attended with discomfiture, and every lover of liberty will rejoice that the planters of Jamaica were among the foremost to resist the unconstitutional pretensions of the Crown.

In 1684 the first fruits of the impolicy of slave labour was felt by a serious insurrection of the negroes, which however was speedily suppressed; in 1686 the extensive immigration of Jews gave renewed commercial stimulus to the island, but

* In 1680 the military force of the island was 4,526 men in eight regiments, the relative strength of which was as follows,—

377	661	592	420
515	496	1,101	364

Sir Henry Morgan, (the Lieutenat-Governor) in a letter dated 1681, says that the North side of the island had then only been settled five years.

the sectarian Popish zeal of the Duke of Albemarle, who, to preserve him from starving in England, was appointed by James II. Governor of Jamaica, temporarily checked the happiness and prosperity of the islanders.

In 1691, the maroons or run-away negroes became exceedingly troublesome to the planters, several of whom, with their families, were murdered, but by the vigilance of the militia the evil was for the time suppressed. In the midst of much prosperity, and when the Colonists were exulting in their good fortune, the town of Port Royal, into which the wealth of the Buccaneers had been poured, and on whose shores their crimes and wickedness had been felt, by the awful interposition of Providence, was suddenly destroyed, and 3000 of its inhabitants instantly engulphed in the earthquake which entombed the scene of so much depravity for ever! On the 7th June, 1692, at mid-day, while the Governor and Council were sitting, and the wharfs were loaded with merchandize and rich spoil, a roar was heard in the distant mountains, and reverberated through the vallies to the beach where the sea suddenly arose, and in an instant stood five fathoms deep, where a moment before were displayed the glittering treasures of Peru and Mexico; in some places the earth opened wide and swallowed whole houses, which were again, perhaps, thrown upwards by the violent concussion of the sea; in others, many individuals were swallowed up to the neck, and the earth then closing strangled them; the *Swan* frigate was forced over the tops of the sunken houses, and afforded a providential escape to many persons, and of the whole town, perhaps the richest spot in the world, not more than two hundred houses of the fort were left. The whole island felt severely the shock, in some parts mountains were riven, in others connected, the outline of every thing was changed, and the entire surface of the island considerably subsided; many thousand persons were destroyed in the overwhelming of Port Royal, the ruins of which are yet visible in clear weather from the surface of the ocean, beneath which they lie. A dreadful epidemic, arising from the putrifying bodies floating

in shoals about the harbour and from the noxious miasm, succeeded, in which 3,000 persons fell victims. Amidst the loss of much wealth and property, the destruction of the official papers and records of the island was not the least valuable. In June 1694, while the colonists were yet bending under the effects of the earthquake, a formidable descent was made on the island by M. Du Casse, with three ships of war, twenty-three transports and 1,500 men, from France and Martinique.

This formidable invasion was most gallantly met by the Jamaica militia, and utterly routed, with a loss to the invaders of seven hundred men, and on the side of the English of about one hundred killed and wounded. The most wanton cruelties were committed by the French; fifty sugar estates were totally destroyed, many plantations burned, and 1,500 negroes and several merchant ships carried away by the retreating marauders. The latter years of the seventeenth century were not remarkable for any memorable events in the colonial annals of Jamaica. The Scots colony of Darien was formed about the period of October 1698, and very soon after suppressed, but the colonists of Jamaica generously extended encouragement and support to those whom the miserable policy of the home government would not permit the defence of, against the tyrannical and false usurpation of the territory by Spain. In 1698 the population was, whites, males, 2,465; women and children, 4,900; total, whites, 7365; negroes, 40,000; and in August 1702, the following return was given in:—servants, 1,307; slaves, 41,596; cattle, 38,248; sheep, 28,598. Port Royal, which had begun to rise again contiguous to the site it had occupied previous to the earthquake, was now doomed to a second destruction by fire; the whole town having been annihilated by the blowing up of some gunpowder, loosely lodged beneath roofs of pitch pine; Kingston rose in prosperity as Port Royal sank under repeated misfortunes. During the reign of Queen Ann, various unconstitutional efforts were made to induce the Jamaica Assembly to pass a bill granting a permament revenue to the

crown, but the measure was steadily and triumphantly rejected. For the first nine years of the eighteenth century, there had been fifteen Sessions and eight Assemblies, convened for the purpose of endeavouring to give the crown a power over the money bills or supplies, raised by the representatives of the people; but the Jamaica colonists have never allowed an encroachment on their constitutional rights, and neither threats nor persuasions could induce the House of Assembly to part with a power, which once lost, would have left no principles or rights worth preserving. In August, 1722, a tremendous hurricane sunk several ships, and destroyed much property and many lives; a fatal endemic, as usual, followed, causing thereby great distress, nevertheless one of the first Acts of the House of Assembly on being convened in Jan. 1723, was to double the Duke of Portland's salary, making it £5,000, 'in deference to His Majesty's recommendation and to His Grace's character.'

This fact demonstrates that the opposition of the House of Assembly to binding and burthening their posterity with oppressive taxes, was not founded on a parsimonious, but on a constitutional and patriotic principle. The Duke of Portland's administration is represented to have displayed a just blending of moderation and firmness, of urbanity of manners, and decision of judgment; unhappily, however, his rule was too brief to be productive of much advantage, save in the excellent example of calm discussion, which he gave to political parties. His Grace was honoured with the tears of all who knew him. In May, 1727, the long agitated revenue bill passed through the House of Assembly; and articles of foreign growth or manufacture, with the quit rents, fines, and forfeitures, which had already been relinquished, supplied the required fund of £8,000 per annum, and that which has been termed the Magna Charta of Jamaica passed, namely, that 'all such laws and statutes of England as have been at any time introduced, used, accepted, or received as laws in the island are declared to be laws in Jamaica for ever.'

From this period to 1740,* few events occurred worthy of notice in a work, the main object of which is to lay before the British public the present value and importance of the colonial appendages of Britain; the Maroon war was carried on for some time to the great vexation of the planters, and although the Maroon marauders did not exceed 500 men, they kept large bodies of troops at bay, owing to the natural fastnesses of their mountain retreats; the submission of Cudjoe, the leader, and most of his followers, was eagerly accepted by the government, and portions of land quickly allotted for their use. The war with Spain, the gallantry of Vice Admiral Vernon, and the patriotism of Governor Trelawney, gave glory to the British arms in the West, a stimulus to the

*. The following detail of the produce of Jamaica Estates and its value, in 1739, has been furnished to me from the MS. collections of the late Mr. Long. This MS. is entitled, 'Number of sugar plantations in Jamaica, with the quantity of sugar generally made for some years past on them. Date, Christmas, 1739.'

It mentions every estate separately, together with the name of its owner and its produce. The estate producing the largest return appears to have been Old and New Buxton, in the parish of St. Thomas in the Vale, the property of Charles Price, Esq. The produce was 300 hds. The next single estates, producing about 250 hds., were the properties of the Beckford, Pennant, and Dawkins' families. The two estates of Longville and Lucky Valley, in the parish of Clarendon, belonging to the Long family, yielded, the first 130, the second 60 hds. In the same parish the estate of Seven plantations, formerly also in that family, produced 200 hds. An estate, called the Crescent, in St. Mary's parish, first settled in 1676, produced 150 hds. It has since, on one or two occasions, yielded 400.

The general summary of the island produce, in the same document, is as follows:—

48 sugar works in St. Thomas in the Vale, producing 3315 hds.; 3 ditto St. Catherine's 210 hds.; 31 ditto, St. Andrew's, 1390 hds.; 8 ditto St. David's, 455 hds.; 44 ditto, St. Thomas in the East, 4120 hds.; 4 ditto St. George's, 380 hds.; 19 ditto, St. Mary's, 1526 hds.; 19 ditto, St Anne's, 2050 hds.; 8 ditto, St. James, 660 hds.; 39 ditto, Hanover, 2620 hds; 64 ditto, Westmoreland, 5450 hds.; 32 ditto, St. Elizabeth's, 2745 hds.;

ardent and enterprising spirits of Jamaica, and a flow of wealth towards their shores from the expeditions of the English fleets and cruisers against the Spanish settlements; and in 1742 Jamaica contained 14,000 whites and 100,000 slaves. Under the government of Admiral Knowles in 1751, the seat of government was removed from St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, to Kingston; the lands patented, or granted, amounted at this time to 1,500,000 acres; and the exports to Great Britain, on an average of four years, were estimated at nearly £800,000. In 1758 the government was again removed after much acrimony between the government and the planters, who opposed the removal of the seat of government to Kingston. The year 1760 witnessed one of those desperate insurrections which must ever characterise a population where nine-tenths are bondsmen, and though with the feelings of men, treated as brutes; the contest ended only with the destruction of the greater part of the rebel slaves; and it exhibited the most disgusting cruelty and barbarism on the part of those whom civilization ought to have taught that humanity never suffers by the exercise of clemency towards a fallen foe. The Rev. Mr. Bridges says, that some of the condemned rebels were burned, some fixed alive on gibbets, and

7 ditto, Vera, 405 hds.; 66 ditto, Clarendon, 5480 hds.; 8 ditto, St. Dorothy's, 370 hds.; 28 ditto, St. John's, 2000 hds. Total, 418 sugar works (whereof 10 are new and make no sugar, producing 33,155 hds.

33,155 hds. of sugar, 1600 lbs. each, is 53,048,000, sold at 18*s.* per cwt., is, - - - - - -	£477,432
Each 60 lbs. sugar to produce 4 gallons molasses, is 3,536,532 gallons, one-third whereof sold, is, 1,178,844 gallons, at 8*d.* per gallon, - - - - - - -	39,294
The remaining molasses, 2,357,688 gallons, 3 gallons to make 2 gallons rum, includiug the skimmings, is 1,571,792 gallons rum, at 18*d.* - - - - - - -	117,884
	£634,610

N. B. The above is exclusive of plantation consumption.

Sugar. Consumption of Jamaica, and sent to the northward and other places, about 2000 hds., the rest sent to Britain.—Rum. Consumption of Britain, 5000 puncheons; of Jamaica and other parts, 9000; total, 14000.

one lived 210 hours suspended under a tropical sun, without so much as a drop of water! It is to be hoped that the day for the repetition of such monstrous and ineffectual attempts to enforce obedience have passed away for ever. Ninety white persons fell in this rebellion; 400 of the rebel negroes were slain; many destroyed themselves in the woods sooner than again fall into the hands of their former masters, and their skeletons were found suspended in the lofty branches of the cotton-trees, and about 600 were transported to the Bay of Honduras. Prosperity attended the island during the war ending in 1763, the king's house was completed and furnished at an expense of £30,000., and the banks of the Rio Cobre adorned by elegant villas and well cultivated farms. One of the finest fortresses in Jamaica, perhaps in the West Indies, Fort Augusta, was blown up, 14th September, 1763, by reason of the magazine, containing 3,000 lbs. of gunpowder, being ignited by lightning, by which several hundred persons were killed and wounded, and £43,000. of property destroyed. It is stated that the number of slaves *annually* imported into Jamaica about this period, amounted to 16,000;* and within thirty years the slave population had increased from 99,000 to upwards of 200,000, while the total numerical strength of the whites did not exceed 16,000.

The war waged against England by the N. American colonies, in a struggle for independence from a country which could not appreciate their value, and therefore deserved to lose them, called forth the utmost energies of Jamaica to preserve the island from the meditated combined attack of the French and Spanish forces; and here it may be remarked, that in every contest in which England has been engaged,

* According to a manuscript journal of Hampson Needham, in possession of his grandson, Major-General Needham, the price of Negroes in 1750 is thus stated:—"Bought ten Negroes at £50 each"—and in 1747 the following calculation appears in the Board of Trade Papers:—

500 Negroes, at £30 each	£15,000
Clothing with Osnaburghs four times a year, at 4*s.* 6*d.* each,	450
Maintenance—fifty-two weeks, at 1*s.* 10*d.* each per week,	2,383

the inhabitants of Jamaica have evinced a loyalty and attachment to the mother country, unsurpassed in the annals of colonial history. The combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to 60 sail of the line, with 6,000 choice troops and a well organized artillery, destined for the conquest of Jamaica, were frustrated in their intentions by the splendid victory of Rodney and Hood,* on the 12th April, 1782, off Dominica, over the French squadron of 36 sail of the line and 10 frigates, commanded by Count De Grasse, by which personal security was afforded to the islanders, whose condition was much reduced by several years of continued hurricanes, and by the extraordinary efforts which they made for the preservation of Jamaica to the British crown. His present Majesty, then a midshipman in the British navy, visited Jamaica at this period, and generously bore testimony to the enthusiasm displayed by the colonists in their heroic endeavours to defend this valuable island from becoming the property of the enemies of England; and on His Royal Highness' return to Jamaica in 1788, the colonists solicited the Prince's acceptance of a star of the value of one thousand guineas, while to General Campbell was presented a splendid service of plate, in testimony of his exertions as governor during the anticipated invasion from the combined fleets. And here let me regret the insane policy of England in imposing heavy duties on the produce of Jamaica and of our other E. and W. India colonies, when imported into England; nothing could (as was then justly complained of) more effectually tend to destroy the planters, not even the almost annual visitation of the hurricanes with which they were afflicted; the full benefit of colonies can only be experienced when their trade approximates as closely as possible to a coasting commerce, freed from fiscal exactions and legislative decrees.

The Maroon war, so imprudently and unjustly brought on by the intemperate policy of the Earl of Balcarras, then (1795)

* The Jamaicians, with their usual liberality, caused a marble statue to be erected in memory of Rodney, which was executed by Bacon, and cost 3,000 guineas.

Governor of Jamaica, cost the lives of many brave men, and ended in the removal of the surviving Maroons to Nova Scotia, and finally to Sierra Leone. The disastrous revolution in St. Domingo caused additional expense to the island, and the West India or coloured regiments, were then first raised, much to the dissatisfaction of the colonists, who were also at this time burthened with the absurd support of the *20th regiment of Dragoons;* a pretty species of force for a West India sugar plantation.* In 1802, Kingston was constituted a corporation, and a mayor, aldermen, &c. appointed. But I have already encroached on the limits allotted to this portion of my work, and it would detract from the object I have in view, namely, to develope the actual condition and commercial and political advantages of the British colonies, were I to continue a minutiæ of facts or chronological account of domestic occurrences;† sufficient has been written to demonstrate the manner in which the island of Jamaica became colonized and attached to Great Britain,‡ and we may now proceed to contemplate its—

* After putting the country to an enormous expense for the support of this regiment, the *wiseacres* of the day discovered, after a lapse of several years, that the mountains of Jamaica were not favourable to the movements of a regiment of cavalry, and it was accordingly withdrawn.

† The terrific slave insurrection of 1831-2 need not here be mentioned. I trust it is the last civil or predial war which the island may be doomed to witness.

‡ The following are the names of the Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, &c. of Jamaica, with the years when they commenced their administrations:—

Governor, Colonel D'Oyley . 1660
——— Lord Windsor . . 1662
Lieutenant-Governor, Sir C. Lyttleton, Knt. 1662
President, Col. Thos. Lynch, 1664
Gov. Sir T. Modyford, Knt. 1664
Lt.-Gov. Sir T. Lynch. Knt. 1671
——— Sir H. Morgan, Knt. 1675
Governor, Lord Vaughan, . 1675
Lt.-Gov. Sir H. Morgan, Knt. 1678
Gov. Chas. Earl of Carlisle, 1678
Lt.-Gov. Sir H. Morgan, Knt. 1680
Gov. Sir Thos. Lynch, Knt. . 1682
Lieut.-Governor, Col. Hender Molesworth, ... 1684
Governor, Christopher, Duke of Albemarle 1687
President, Sir Fras. Watson . 1688
Gov. Wm. Earl of Inchiquin, 1690
President, John White, Esq. 1692

PHYSICAL ASPECT. This beautiful isle, happily screened by Cuba and Hispaniola from the tempestuous winds of the Atlantic, and peculiarly adapted for an extensive and profitable commerce with the adjacent continent, by reason of the number and disposition of its excellent havens, is really one of our most valuable colonies. Jamaica is somewhat of an oval shape, with an elevated ridge called the 'Blue Mountains,' (towering in some places to nearly 8,000 feet above the level of the sea), running longitudinally through the isle E. and W. and occasionally intersected by other high ridges, traversing from N. to S.; approaching the sea on the S. coast in gigantic spines, of sharp ascent—difficult of access, and clothed with dense and sombre forests;—on the N. declining into lovely mounds and round topped hills, covered with groves of pimento, and all the exquisite verdure of the

President, Jno. Bourden, Esq. 1692
Lt.-Gov. Sir W. Beeston, Knt. 1693
Governor, Wm Selwyn, Esq. 1702
Lieut.-Gov. P. Beckford, Esq. 1702
——— T. Handasyd, Esq. 1702
Gov. Lord Arch. Hamilton, 1711
——— Peter Heywood, Esq. . 1716
——— Sir Nich. Lawes, Knt. 1718
——— Hen. Duke of Portland, 1722
Pres. John Ayscough, Esq. 1722
Gov. Maj.-Gen. Rob. Hunter, 1728
Pres. John Ayscough, Esq. 1734
——— John Gregory, Esq. . 1735

Henry Cunningham, Esq, was appointed Governor in 1735, but President Gregory was succeeded by

Gov. Edward Trelawny, Esq. 1738
——— Charles Knowles, Esq. 1752
Lt.-Gov. Henry Moore, Esq. 1756
Gov. George Haldane, Esq. 1758
Lt.-Gov. Henry Moore, Esq. 1759
Gov. W. H. Lyttelton, Esq. 1762
Lt.-Gov. R. H. Ellefson, Esq. 1766
Gov. Sir Wm. Trelawny, Bt. 1767
Lt.-Gov. Lt.-Col. J. Dalling, 1773
Gov. Sir Basil Keith, Knt. 1773
——— Major-Gen. J. Dalling, 1777
——— Major-General Arch. Campbell, ... 1782
Lt.-Gov. Brig. Gen. Alured Clarke, ... 1784
Gov. T. Earl of Effingham, 1790
Lt.-Gov. Maj.-G. Williamson, 1791
——— Earl of Balcarras, 1795
——— Lt.-Gen. G. Nugent, 1801
——— Lt.-Gen. Sir E. Coote, 1806
Gov. Duke of Manchester, 1808
Lt.-Gov. Lt.-Gen. E. Morrison, 1811
Gov. Duke of Manchester, 1813
Lt.-Gov. M.-Gen. H. Conran, 1821
Gov. Duke of Manchester, 1822
Lt.-Gov. Major-General Sir John Keane, ... 1827
Gov. Earl of Belmore, . . 1829
Pres. G. Cuthbert, Esq. . 1832
Gov. C. H. Earl of Mulgrave, 1832
Lt.-Gov.
Gov. Marquis of Sligo, . 1834

tropics,—the *coup d'œil* presenting a splendid panorama of high mountains, embosomed in clouds, and vast savannahs or plains, hills and vales, rivers, bays, and creeks. The middle part, called Pedro's Cockpit, lying between Clarendon and St. Ann's Parishes, is spread for an extent of many miles, with an infinite number of round-topped hills, whose surface, covered with a loose lime-stone, or honey-combed rock, is clothed with fine cedar and other trees, of enormous bulk; the dales or cockpits meandering between these hummocks contain a rich soil, of great depth, where the succulent Guinea grass forms a perfect carpet of ever-verdant beauty.*

When viewed at a distance from Point Morant (the southernmost high land on the coast), the picture is splendid; the blue mountains appear above the stratum of clouds, which roll along their precipitous sides,—beneath the rugged hills are furrowed with ravines, and steeps cliffs descend abruptly to the sea; on a nearer approach lofty forests are discovered on the sides of the hills, and patches of bright emerald green become visible on running along the S. coast towards Port Royal. From Fort Morant (conspicuous under a steep hill), to Port Royal, there is a narrow spit of land, called the palisades, composed of sand, overgrown with mangroves,† behind this is the harbour of the chief commercial town.‡ (Kingston) situated on a gentle slope of about one mile in length, which is bounded on the S. by a spacious bason, through which all vessels must advance beneath the commanding batteries of Port Royal. The extended inclined plane, on the verge of which Kingston stands, is inclosed on the N. by the loftiest ridge of the Blue Mountain chain,

* Butter made from the cattle fed here, is by some persons thought equal, if not superior to any in England.

† Quicksands are commonly met with in Jamaica (and indeed in most tropical isles) on crossing the mouths of rivers or gullies on the coast, at the junction of the sea and freshes.

‡ St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, Co. Middlesex, on the S. W. side of the island, about sixteen miles from the sea and sixteen from Kingston, is the seat of Government, but Kingston is in reality the capital of the island.

termed Liguana, which, forming a semi-circle, terminates in the E. at the narrow defile of Rock Fort,—from thence a long neck of land stretches far away to Port Royal, forming the S. barrier of a beautiful haven; in the W. the semicircle terminates at a contracted pass upon the edge of an impracticable lagoon, from thence the main land sweeping round to Port Henderson, and the projecting salt pond hills secure an harbour, in which the navies of Europe might safely ride.* The entrance is defended on the E. point of the delta of Port Royal by the formidable ramparts of Fort Charles, thickly studded with heavy ordnance; on the W. side, by the cannon of Rock Fort, while the low raking shot from the long level lines of Fort Augusta, which face the narrow channel, would sweep a hostile navy off the ocean. For nine miles around Kingston is an alluvial plain, surrounded by a series of irregular mountains, some of which to the E. and N. E. are of considerable elevation,—constantly cloud-capped, and appearing as if made up of several hills piled upon one another, with various elevations, picturesque vallies and chasms, impressing the mind with an idea of volcanic origin, or that some convulsion of nature, had caused the strange irregularity displayed.

The streets in Lower Kingston are long and straight, with a mathematical regularity like the new town of Edinburgh, the houses in general two stories, with verandahs above and below. The English and Scotch churches are really elegant structures, particularly the former, which is built on a picturesque spot, commanding a splendid view of the city, the plains around it, the amphitheatre of mountains, and the noble harbour of Port Royal.

On a plain at the top of the declivity on which Kingston is built are the fine barracks, called Up Park Camp, and not far

* The anchorage is good all over Port Royal Harbour—but for ships bound to sea the best is in nine fathoms, with a remarkable notch on the East side of a high mountain, called the leading notch, a little open to the Eastward of Fort Augusta, bearing nearly North, and having Rackum Key on with Port Royal Point.

hence on a still more conspicuous spot, is the residence for the naval commander-in-chief on the station, called the Admiral's Pen.

MOUNTAINS. The heights of the principal places above the level of the sea, are thus computed—

Blue Mountain Peak,	7,770 ft.	Flamstead House,	3,800 ft.
Ridge of ditto, - -	7,163	Sheldon House,	3,417
Portland Gap ridge,	6,501	Middleton ditto,	2,340
Portland Gap, - -	5,640	Stoney Hill, Bks.	1,360
Catherine's Peak, -	4,970	Green Castle, -	1,328
Abbey Green House, S.D.	4,233	Hope Tavern, -	699
Clifton House, S. A.	4,228		

It is asserted, however, that the three very remarkable peaks on the grand ridge of Blue Mountains at the eastern part of the island called the *Coldridge*, have their respective summits 8,184, 7,656, and 7,576 feet above the level of the sea, and there are other mountains in this ridge exceeding a mile in height. Catherine's peak, about seven miles and a half N. of Kingston, is stated to be 5,075 feet, and Hardwar Hill to the westward of it nearly of equal elevation, forming the summits of another grand ridge which crosses the island diagonally. The mountains to the W. in the counties of Middlesex and Cornwall do not reach the height of a mile, rarely exceed half a mile: *Leman's* mountain* in the county of Middlesex, six miles N. of Spanish Town is 2,282 feet high, and the *Bull's Head*, in Clarendon, near the centre of the island on the meridian of Carlisle Bay, is 3,140 feet. In the W., the *Dolphin's Head* S. of Lucea is 3,450 feet. On the S. E. coast Yallah's Hill which is within the point of the same name is only 2,706 feet. The greater proportion of the mountains are of conical form, with steep declivities, approaching very near the shore on the N. coast, and leaving plains of about twelve miles wide on the S.; the dark and deep ravines between the lofty mountains, denominated

* Near this mountain is Highgate, a delightful residence, where Lord Belmore resided with his family in the hot months, and lately occupied by Lord and Lady Mulgrave.

Cockpits, are closely shut in by dense woods, and offer a marked contrast to the lower mountains, which are cultivated with coffee, pimento, cotton, capsicums, &c., in all their variety, affording delightful country retreats from the coast.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS. The beauty of the island is further enhanced by its numerous rivers, upwards of two hundred of which have been enumerated; few, however, (owing to the mountainous and hill and dale nature of the country), are navigable for vessels of any burthen, though they might be made so by means of locks, &c. In St. Elizabeth parish, Black River, which flows for the most part through a flat country, is the deepest and least rapid, and is navigable for flat-bottomed boats and canoes for about thirty miles. The other chief rivers on the S. side are the Rio Cobre and Rio Minho, and on the N., Marthabræ, White, Ginger and Great River, &c. The precipitate current of the streams renders them the better adapted for mechanical purposes, their quick agitation over the falls preserves their zest and sprightliness for animal drink, and prevents the too great evaporation and formation of damps and mists, which would otherwise be occasioned.

Springs are extremely numerous, even in the highest mountains; about Kingston, and on the N. side, they are generally impregnated with calcareous earth, and in the latter stalactites are met with. Several are of a medicinal nature in Vere and Portland; the most celebrated is one of a sulphureous nature in the E. parish of St. Thomas, giving name to a village called Bath; there is a cold and a hot spring; the latter runs by many rills out of the side of a rocky cleft that confines the middle part of the sulphur river to the E., as it runs towards the South; it is very hot at its source, naturally light, and plentifully charged with volatile particles of mineral acid, combined with sulphureous steam, slightly engaged in a calcareous base; the cold spring differs only in being more abundantly charged with sulphur; the use of both is exceedingly beneficial in cutaneous disorders, obstructions of the viscera, &c.

Of the harbours it may be sufficient to state, that the Ja-

maica shore has sixteen principal secure havens, besides thirty bays, roads or shipping stations, which afford good anchorage.

DIVISION.—The island is divided into three counties—Middlesex, Surrey and Cornwall,* each of which is subdivided into parishes, nine, seven and five. Middlesex contains St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish town, situate in a noble plain, and adorned with many fine buildings in the Castilian style; Surrey contains Kingston and Port Royal, and likewise the villages of Port Morant and Morant Bay, the latter of considerable importance on account of its shipping; Portland parish, in this county, contains Port Antonio, one of the most commodious and secure in the island; St. George parish contains Annotto Bay; Cornwall county has Montego Bay on the north-west coast, on which coast Falmouth, twenty miles east of Montego Bay, is also situate. The other places worth notice are Carlisle and Bluefield Bays on the south, and Marthæ-bræ and Lucea harbours on the north coast. The chief headlands of the island are Port Morant, at the east end of Jamaica, and two promontories on the west end, the coast along which is bold and high.†

It may be necessary to say a few words respecting the position of the military stations, &c. in Jamaica, especially on the south side of the island, where four out of five regiments are stationed. To begin with

FORT AUGUSTA. This strong fortress is built upon a low

Counties.	Area in Acres.	Towns.	Parishes.	Villages.
*Cornwall.....	1,305,235 ..	3 ..	5 ..	6
Middlesex.....	672,616 ..	1 ..	9 ..	13
Surry.....	1,522,149 ..	2 ..	7 ..	8
Total..	3,500,000	6	21	27

† The roads through the island are in general narrow but good. By the old laws the width of the roads was ordered as follows;—

Width in standing wood..... 60 feet
Do. wood on one side..... 40 do.
Do. open ground..... 24 do.

The making ofsome roads in the island have cost £700 per mile.

neck of land, or peninsula, joined to the hills at Port Henderson by a narrow isthmus of sand, having a coral formation for its base. The buildings of the fort occupy the whole area of the point of the peninsula, which is surrounded by the sea, except to the west,—the south face of the fort being washed by the deep water of the ship channel, while the east and north fronts are environed by the shallow waters of a lagoon. The fort is considered healthy, owing to the prevalence of the wind from the S. and S. E. The barracks are two stories high, well ventilated,* and contain generally four service companies.

Up-Park Camp contains the only government barracks in Jamaica, and they are indeed highly creditable to the island. They are situate about two miles north of Kingston, at the extremity of the plain of Liguana, which gradually rises above the level of the sea; is well cultivated,—extremely fertile,—about one mile and a half south of the Long Mountain, with an elevation of eight hundred feet, covered with brush wood, and exceedingly steep towards Kingston. The height of the camp above the sea shore is about two hundred feet, and it covers an irregular square of between two and three hundred acres, sloping towards Kingston. The barracks consist of two long parallel lines of buildings, extending from east to west (that to the south, or seaward, comprising the officers' quarters), two stories high, a six-feet basement, an excellent hospital, a splendid bath of forty feet clear and four deep, containing 70,000 gallons of running water;† the whole cantonment, at sixty feet distance, surrounded by a wall of six feet high, surmounted by an iron palisading. Twelve hundred and eighty-four European sol-

* The efforts of the surgeon of the 84th regiment, in 1828, caused the House of Assembly to make considerable improvement in the barracks and hospital at this station.

† This fine bath is supplied with water from Papine estate, four miles and a half distant; the pipe conveying it is six inches in diameter, with a velocity of twelve inches, and discharging 4,500 gallons per hour. This plentiful supply of so indispensable an element, enables the soldiers to irrigate their beautiful gardens, which are laid out in the camp, and which furnish the garrison with a constant supply of vegetables.

diers are encamped with comfort, and the attached offices are spacious, lofty, and commodious.*

STONEY HILL garrison, capable of holding five hundred men—is situate 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, on the ridges of a chain of mountains, (in a depression between a more elevated chain), running in a curved direction from east to west, and enjoying a most beautiful and picturesque view of the inclined alluvial plain of Liguana, of the city of Kingston, of Port Royal, of Fort Augusta, and of the adjacent country. The barracks, hospitals, &c. are, generally speaking, situate on small detached eminences, and are nine miles north of Kingston, seven of which cross the plain of Liguana; the remainder of the road is a rather an abrupt ascent to the garrison, but practicable for wheeled carriages of every description. This post commands the grand pass, which intersects the island from north to south, and is therefore justly considered of great importance. The government ground at the station amounts to eighty-three acres.

PORT ANTONIO, situate at the extremity of the island, eighty miles from Kingston, is nearly insulated;— its fort exhibiting a half-moon battery, with a magazine in the rear, one hundred and forty-four feet long by twenty-one wide. The barracks are placed upon a kind of peninsula, forming on either side a bay, and capable of containing upwards of fifty men. The buildings are new and elevated, commodious, and commanding a fine view of the sea.

FALMOUTH, or MARTHÆ-BRÆ, fifteen miles east of Montego Bay, has a small fort at Point Palmetto, with a good set of artillery barracks, and an hospital, stores and quarters, open to the sea breeze. It is a bar harbour; channel very narrow, intricate, not more than sixteen or seventeen feet deep, but within a regular depth of from five to ten fathoms. The town of Falmouth is built on the west side of the harbour.

MAROON TOWN is situate in the interior, between the parishes of Westmoreland and St. James, on a very high

* Dr. Adolphus, late Inspector of Hospitals at Jamaica, has been one of the main causes of the great improvements recently effected at Up Park Camp.

mountain, affording a most desirable station, in a military as well as in a sanatory point of view (*vide Climate*). The barracks, delightfully placed in the midst of verdant mountains and springs of the most delicious water, are capable of accommodating upwards of two hundred men, with an excellent hospital for twenty patients.

MONTEGO BAY is situate at the foot of a range of mountains which nearly surround the town, except on the sea side. The barracks for one hundred men, and an hospital for forty patients, are complete and comfortable. The N. point is in Lat. 18.30½ N. It is a good bay, sheltered from all winds, from the N.N.E. round to E. and W. and open to those from N. and W. It is distant fifteen miles from—

LUCEA, or FORT CHARLOTTE, which is built on the north-east extremity of a peninsula, bounded on one side by the beautiful bay and secure harbour of Lucea, and on the other by the sea. The mountains of Hanover and Westmoreland rise abruptly and majestically high immediately behind the town of Lucea, about one mile from the garrison. The highest peak, termed the *Dolphin's Head*, serves as a good land-mark to the mariner.

SAVANNAH LE MAR. This is a fine station, in the midst of a highly cultivated country. From the sea shore the ground springs a little towards the north, pretty level, and intersected by several fine rivers; towards the east, at the distance of twelve miles, the mountains begin to rise near the coast, running nearly northerly upwards of sixteen miles, when they turn to the west, and incline, after running several miles further, towards the south, where they terminate not far from the ocean, and embrace within their border a beautiful and highly cultivated amphitheatre. The town of Savannah le Mar is situated on the beach, from which a low alluvial flat extends for several miles; in this plain, about one mile from the town, are an excellent range of barracks. The station is now healthy,* and the harbour good; but requiring a pilot, on account of its intricate entrance.

* It is a remarkable circumstance that the most healthy stations in tropical climes have become, at times, quite the reverse.

APOSTLES BATTERY is a small fort, erected on a high rock, on the shore opposite to Port Royal.

PORT ROYAL, situate nearly at the extremity of a tongue of land, which forms the boundary of the harbours of Kingston and of Port Royal. Towards the sea, the tongue is composed of coral rocks, covered with sand, which the tide frequently inundates, as a great part of the town of Port Royal is only a few feet above the sea level. The royal naval yard lies to the N. the naval hospital to the S. W., and the works of Fort Charles, and the soldiers' barracks, to the southward. The fortifications are extremely strong, and the situation (though low) healthy from its openness to the sea breeze. The harbour is capable of containing 1,000 large ships with convenience.*

SPANISH TOWN. The capital of Jamaica† is situate at the

* The European reader will remember that it was on this spot the former Port Royal stood ere it was overwhelmed by the earthquake of 1692, and with 2000 houses buried eight fathoms under water.

† The following are the Post Roads Windward of the Island :—

	Miles.
Distance from Kingston to St. David	19
St. David to Blue Mountain	8
Blue Mountain to Morant Bay,	8
Morant Bay to Port Morant	7
Port Morant to Bath	6
Bath to Amity Hall	7
Amity Hall to Manchioneal	9
Total	64

North Side to Port Antonio.	
From Kingston to Annotto Bay,	30
Annotto Bay to Buff Bay	10
Buff Bay to Hope Bay	10
Hope Bay to Port Antonio	10
Total	60

	Miles.
North Side to Port Maria.	
From Kingstown to Highgate,	32
Highgate to Port Maria	10
Total	42

North Side to Green Island.	
From Kingstown to Spanish Town	13
Spanish Town to Rodney Hall,	14
Rodney Hall to the Moneague,	15
The Moneague to St. Anne's	15
St. Anne's to Dry Harbour	14
Dry Harbour to Rio Beuno	5
Rio Beuno to Falmouth	17
Falmouth to Little River	12
Little River to Montego Bay	11
Montego Bay to Flint River	12
Flint River to Lucea	11
Lucia to Green Island	12
Total	151

extremity of an extensive plain, extending far to the S., S.E. and W., but with the mountains closely approaching the town on the N. and N. W., and distant from the sea at Port Royal Harbour six miles. The *Cobre,* a river of considerable depth, passes the city at the distance of about a quarter of a mile on the N. E. The barracks are good, well situate, and capable of holding three hundred and seventeen men; the hospital, however, will not accommodate more than thirty-six patients. The buildings of the capital, as before observed, are in the magnificent style of Spanish architecture, and the city has an imposing appearance.*

GEOLOGY. The soil is generally deep and fertile, on the N. of a chocolate colour, in other parts a bright yellow, and every where remarkable for a shining surface when first turned up, and for staining the skin like paint when wetted; it appears to be a chalky marl, containing a large proportion of calcareous matter; there is a soil in the island termed "Brick Mould," which is deep and mellow, on a retentive under strata; this, next to the ash mould of St. Christophers, is considered the best soil in the W. Indies for the sugar cane. A red earth abounds most in the hilly lands, and a purple loam sometimes mixed with a sandy soil in the savannahs and low-lands, but the highest mountains are remarkable for having on their summits a deep black rich soil. The principal soils on the interior hills and mountains of Jamaica may be enumerated thus: a red clay on a white marl; a ditto on a grit; a reddish brown ditto, on marl; a yellowish clay,

South Side to Savannah le Mar.	Miles.
From Kingstown to Spanish Town	13
Spanish Town to Old Harbour,	12
Old Harbour to Clarendon	12
Clarendon to Green Pond	16
Green Pond to May Hill	5
May Hill to the Gutters	5
The Gutters to Goshen	5
Goshen to Laconia	12
Laconia to Black River	12
Black River to Robin's River,	16
Robin's River to Savanna la Mar	16
Total	124

* Population about 5,000.

mixed with common mould; a red grit; a loose conchaceous mould; a black mould on a clay or other substrate; a loose black vegetable mould, on rock; a fine sand; and the varieties of all the foregoing. The mountain-land in general when first cleared of its wood, possesses more or less a deep surface of rich black mould, mixed with shells; a soil which will grow anything.

The brick mould soil of Jamaica (which is a compound of very fine particles of clay, sand, and black mould), is of amazing depth, and is considered by far the best for cultivation; it is always easily laboured, so inexhaustible as to require no manure, in very dry seasons it retains a moisture sufficient to preserve the cane root from perishing, and in very wet it suffers the superfluous waters to penetrate, so that the roots are never in danger of being rotted; next in fecundity is the black shell mould, previously mentioned, which owes its fertility to the mineral salts and exuviæ intermingled with it. The soil about Kingston on the alluvial plain, consists of a layer of deep mould, chiefly composed of decayed vegetable matter, with a proportion of marl and some carbonate of lime, entirely free from gravel, and highly absorbent of water: the substratum varies, being sometimes of a compact aluminous earth alone, in other places mixed with gravel; in sinking a shaft, layers of aluminous earth and gravel are found, running horizontally, approaching to pure clay at the bottom, and at four feet from the surface a strata of finely divided silicia. About Stoney Hill garrison, the surface is similar to what is frequently met with in elevated situations in Jamaica, namely, a superstratum of rich dark mould, varying in depth from two to twenty inches, with a substratum of argillaceous and red earth, evidently containing a mixture of carbonate of iron; and in many parts the surface of the ground studded with lime stones of a very large size. Silver and golden mica is frequent, especially among the hills between St. Catherine's and Sixteen Mile Walk, and when washed down with the floods mistaken for gold sand:—near Spanish Town it is found incorporated with

Potters' clay. Mixed and purplish schistus are common in the mountains of St. John's, and about Bull Bay, and the hard lamellated Amianthus is found in large detached masses, having all the appearance of petrified wood. The lower mountains E. of Kingston are principally composed of a whitish bastard marble, with a smooth even grain, taking a good polish, and frequently used in Jamaica for lime stone.* White free stone, quartz of different species, and lime stone are abundant,—subcrystalline spar is found in small detached masses, and rock spar, very clear, may be seen formed into rocks of prodigious size in the mountains of St. Ann's, where it is observed to constitute whole strata. When exposed any time to the weather the surface grows opaque, and of a milky white. Friable white marl and clammy marl, or *aboo earth*, (of an apparently smooth, greasy, and cohesive nature), are found, and the latter sometimes eaten by the negroes when they are diseased, to the great detriment of health.

MINERALOGY. The lead ore of Jamaica is extremely rich and heavily impregnated with silver; several varieties have been found, and indeed, worked at Liguana, where also striated antimony is obtainable; in the lower mountains of Liguana every variety of copper ore is in profusion, in particular the green and livid, and the shining dark copper ores; in the more mellow matrices, yellow mundick (marchasites), is largely mixed. In the mountains above Bull Bay, a dark iron sand, attracted by the magnet, is found: neither gold nor silver ore has yet been discovered, though it is certain the natives possessed those metals in abundance when first visited by Columbus and the early Spanish settlers.

CLIMATE. The heat of Jamaica is by no means so fearful as has been represented; even on the coast it is temperate, the medium at Kingston throughout the year being 80 F. and the minimum 70. As the country is ascended the temperature of course decreases; eight miles from Kingston the maximum is 70, and at the distance of fourteen miles, where

* Long Mountain, near Kingston, is entirely composed of carbonate of lime. Yet limestone was sent to Jamaica from England!

the elevation is 4200 feet, the average range is from 55 to 65 F. the minimum in winter 44, and a fire in the evenings not only agreeable but necessary. On the summits of the mountains the range in summer is from 47 at sunrise to 58 at noon, the minimum in winter 42. The heat of a tropical climate is materially mitigated by unremitted breezes from sea or land, and by vast masses of clouds which, interposing between the sun's rays and the earth, prevent any great inconvenience therefrom; the air is remarkably light and enlivening, producing great cheerfulness even in old age, and so equal in its pressure that it rarely varies more than an inch at any time of the year. Although the temperature alternates eight or ten degrees on the south side of the mountains, and more so on the north, it is not subject to the sudden and detrimental transitions experienced in South Carolina, and other parts of the United States. From July to October is the hurricane season, but severe storms at the Windward Caribbee isles are not felt at Jamaica. For two or three months preceding the May rains,* lightning and thunder are prevalent, but not very mischievous; and from November to March, when the sea-breeze is irregular northerly winds blow, becoming colder as they recede towards the west; during this season the air is delicious, resembling the finest English vernal weather.† The seasons are divided into four,—viz. vernal or moderate rains, in April and May, lasting six weeks; the second, hot and dry, including June, July, and August; the third, hurricane and rainy months, embracing September, October, and November; and the fourth, serene and cool, comprising December, January, February and March.

There is however considerable difference of climate on either side of the island; on the south it may be said that *spring* ranges through the months from November to April; *summer* from May to August, and *winter* from September to

* The quantity of rain falling in the year is nearly fifty inches.

† These statements demonstrate how well adapted the high lands of Jamaica are for the settlement of European cultivators of tropical productions.

October; while on the north side winter ranges from October to March; the north has a larger supply of rain than the south, but distributed in smaller and more frequent showers, and it is cooler, and with a vegetation of greater bulk and height. The following Meteorological Register for Up-Park Camp, is from Sir J. Mc Gregor's office.

	Max.	Med.	Min.	Wind.*	
January† .	84	78	71	N & SE	Fine, some showers, strong N. winds.
February .	84	78	72	Ditto	Fine and dry, strong sea breezes.
March . .	86	82	77	Ditto	Ditto, Earthquakes felt, ditto, ditto.
April . .	87	83	79	Ditto	Very dry, ditto, moderate ditto.
May . .	87	81	75	Ditto	Fine, with light showers.
June . .	86	82	78	Ditto	Mostly ditto, with heavy ditto.
July . .	89	83	77	Ditto	Many showers, but generally fine.
August .	87	82	77	S.S.W.	Some heavy rain, ditto.
September	89	82	76	Ditto	Mornings fine, noon heavy rains.
October .	86	80	74	Ditto	Some heavy rain, mostly fine.
November	85	79	73	Ditto	Ditto, ditto,
December	84	78	73	Ditto	Some rain, generally fine.

On the southern side of the island, the sea breeze from the

* For a more accurate account of the winds, vide page 178.

† That the climate of Jamaica has undergone great change since the cultivation of the isle is most true. From Mr. Nedham's journal, kept at Mount Olive, in the parish of St. Thomas in the Vale, I find that the thermometer is noted January 5th at 50—"*whole day cold.*" Governor Modyford, in a letter to Lord Arlington, then, in 1665, Secretary of State, observes, with regard to the healthiness of the island, that "the officers of the old army, from strict saints, are turned debosht devils;" and "really my Lord," he adds, "no man hath died but an account hath been given—y^t^ he gott his decease either by surfeitts or travelling at high noone in a hott day—or being wett with rain, and not changing in season. The Spaniards, at their first coming, (I mean those who trade with the Royall Company) wondered much at the sickness of some of our people; but when they understood of the strength of their drinkes, and the great quantity they charged themselves with, and the little observation of times and seasons, they told me they wondered more they were not all dead. Their health and cheerfulness depending upon their temperance, which, being my natural disposition, I doubt not but will continue me capable to serve his Majestie," &c. &c.

south-eastward comes on in the morning, and gradually increases till noon, when it is strongest; at two or three in the afternoon its force diminishes, and in general it entirely ceases by five o'clock. About eight in the evening the land breeze begins; this breeze extends to the distance of four leagues to the southward of the island. It increases until mid-night, and ceases about four in the morning.

The sea and land-breezes are pretty regular from the latter end of January until May. In the middle of May the sea-breeze generally prevails for several days and nights, especially about the times of full and change of the moon, and thus they continue throughout June and part of July: from that time the sea-breeze diminishes, and veers round to S. by W. or S. S. W., with frequent calms. August, September, and October, have generally strong gales of wind, with much rain.

In December, January, and February, when the north winds predominate, their force checks the sea-breeze. The southern coast is that, which, of course, is least exposed to these winds, being sheltered in a great measure by the mountains. When combined with the land breeze they render the air very cold and unhealthy.

On the northern side of the island, during the greatest part of July, and the whole of August, the southerly, or sea-breeze, generally blows hard off the land, with frequent squalls; but in October, northerly winds prevail, and frequently extend over all the Bahamas and Cuba; and for some time on the north side of Jamaica, where the current of air is forced upwards by the mountains, and its strength spent in the heights; but it sometimes reaches the southern coast, particularly in the neighbourhood of Kingston, and has been known to continue for some days.

During the winter season, the land-breeze is more general off the shores than in summer; and it sometimes continues through the day as well as night. Westerly winds prevail also over the whole space between Jamaica and Cuba, and even so far as the Island of Hayti.

On the south side of the island, during the month of

November, southerly winds generally prevail, and have been known to extend from the Mosquito shore. These winds are generally faint; nor do they reach the land until it be heated by the sun, and soon after mid-day are often expelled by a fresh land-breeze, which also abates in a few hours.

The return of the sea-breeze in autumn is gradual; it first approaches the east end, then advances a little, and sometimes reaches Morant Point a fortnight or more before it is felt above Kingston. It also continues to blow a week or two later on the east end of the island than at Kingston; and has been known in some years to prevail there in the day-time, during the whole time it was unfelt at the former place.

That the climate is not inimical to the human constitution* is evident from the long lives and good health which Europeans and negroes† enjoy who live temperately,—and indeed intemperance, which in more temperate climate would be punished with death, here too often and too long escapes with impunity.

At Stoney Hill garrison, nine miles from Kingston, and 2,000 feet above the sea, the thermometer is generally during the hot months 74 at 6 A. M., 82 at 2 P. M., and 80 at 6 P.M.; during the cold months at corresponding hours, 68—75 and 73; in November and December, when the north winds prevail, the mercury falls as low as 66 F.

At Trelawney-Maroon town, which is situate on a very high mountain in the interior of the island, between the parishes of Westmoreland and St. James the thermometer seldom or ever rises higher than 71 or 72 at noon, falling during the night and early part of the morning as low as 50 and 52. The troops stationed here have for several years enjoyed as good if not indeed a better state of health than they would perhaps have experienced in any other part of the world; and, in 1795, when the yellow fever was at its acme in Jamaica, the men and officers of a newly raised regiment (83rd)

* Of late years the yellow fever has almost, if not quite, disappeared from Jamaica and the other West India islands.

† A negro, called '*Poor Hope*,' recently died at Jamaica, aged 150 years!

did not lose a man by fever at this station.* I have the testimony of that highly intelligent and zealous officer, Dr. Adolphus, Inspector of Military Hospitals, whose eminent services in Jamaica, and wherever his professional zeal and duties have been engaged are duly appreciated, in proof that the climate of Jamaica has of late years most materially improved; that the high-lands of this beautiful isle are well adapted to the European constitution, the more so when they become cleared and cultivated, (a measure, I trust, which will speedily be accomplished), and there are many districts in the interior of Jamaica where the climate and soil are nearly as favourable to health as in any part of Britain, which districts are the property of the crown and now lying waste.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. Fruitful in all the rich vegetation of the tropics, but having for its present staple sugar we will first advert to that important article. It is difficult to say whether the sugar cane is indigenous to the Antilles, or whether, as some say, it was introduced from the Canaries into Hispaniola, soon after the discovery of the New World;†

* The comparative health of the different Military Stations at a period of unusual sickness—namely, for six years ending in 1822, is thus shewn:

Station.	Average Strength.	Deaths.	Ratio.
Up-Park Camp	5,543	1,100	1 in 5
Stoney Hill	1,878	163	1 in 11½
Port Royal	1,651	190	1 in 8½
Fort Augusta	2,024	126	1 in 16
Spanish Town	1,885	300	1 in 6¼
Port Antonio	814	124	1 in 6½
Port Maria	115	30	1 in 3¾
Falmouth	703	65	1 in 10¾
Maroon Town	576	9	1 in 64
Lucia	417	29	1 in 14¼
Savannah le Mar	331	47	1 in 7
Montego Bay	117	10	1 in 10½

The total number of deaths during each of the six years ending in 1822, was 315, 332, 754, 300, 312, 287. Owing to the humane zeal of Sir James M'Gregor, the mortality in the West Indian army has, of late years, been considerably diminished.

† The sugar cane is asserted by many not to have been cultivated in the New World on its discovery by Columbus—it is known that this valuable reed

certain it is that at an early period it was extensively cultivated by the Spaniards in Jamaica, and in 1671 Traphan speaks of the numerous complicated sugar works like a town or village in various parts of the island.* The quantity of sugar now made in Jamaica is very great; and the importations into Great Britain have for some years averaged cwts. 1,400,000: which, rated so low as 21*s.* per cwt., would give nearly *one million and a half sterling.* The Jamaica

was introduced from Asia *via* Africa, Spain, the Canary Islands, and thence to St. Domingo in 1520, when the first sugar plantation was established, the number of which had increased to thirty in 1535: this was the 'creole' cane. In 1788 M. Martin, a French botanist, introduced the celebrated Otaheite cane into Cayenne and Martinico from the Isle of France, whither it had been brought by the justly celebrated Bougainville. The great advantage of this latter cane is its flexibility of organization, or property of accommodating itself to various temperatures much more than the Canary or Creole cane, (which will scarcely yield any sugar in Louisiana;) besides it yields more sugar and of better quality, does not require replanting in three times the time the Creole cane does, (every two or three years) and it yields more refuse for fuel. Although the Spaniards at first attended to the cultivation of sugar, it was subsequently neglected. In the year 1743 the chief productions of Jamaica were cocoa, indigo and hides; the cultivation of sugar had just re-commenced. The increase in the growth of this staple article of the island has been as follows:—1722, 11,000 hogsheads were exported; 1739, 33,155; 1744, 35,761; 1768, 55,000; 1774, 78,304; 1790, 105,400; 1802, 140,000; 1832, cwts. 1,200,000.

* Governor Knowles's calculation in 1755 was—2,128,431 acres ungranted, out of which 400,000 are plantable; of these 100,000 are fit for growing sugar, and the rest for coffee: the remaining 1,728,431 consist of barren mountains, &c. A return was made about the year 1755, of properties in the parish of St. Andrew's, and their produce, to the Board of Trade. In this, an estate called Norbrook, the property of Charles Long, Esq. is thus entered;—'2,222 acres, 55 hogsheads of sugar, nine puncheons of rum; five acres in coffee, producing 2,972 cwt.; 100 acres in provision ground; 500 in pen and pasture—five servants, 153 negroes, and eighty-six head of cattle. Indifferent land—some parts rocky and mountainous.' This estate, in the return of 1739, is put at sixty hogsheads. The cultivation of Jamaica in 1818, according to Mr. Robertson's survey, was—in sugar plantations, 639,000 acres; in breeding farms or fens, 280,000; and in coffee, pimento, ginger, &c, 181,000;—total 1,100,000.

sugar is of a very fine quality, and by the improved systems of culture and manufacture coming into operation, there is little doubt but that the quantity and quality may yet be more extended* if the Home Government will reduce the monstrous rate of taxation now levied on what ceases to be a luxury, for it is a necessary of life to the poorest individual. The quantity of rum made from the sugar is also very great; the annual average exportations to England may be taken at 3,500,000 gallons, which may be estimated in value at 1,000,000*l.* sterling. The Jamaica rum is justly prized as an excellent spirit. Of coffee, (and that too of excellent quality,) the quantity grown in Jamaica is very great: and the importation into Great Britain nearly 20,000,000 lbs.† yearly, which, at the low value of 1*s.* per pound, is *another million* sterling. Now let the opponents of the colonies remember that this great accession of wealth, annually produced and crossing the Atlantic to Great Britain, is not grown or prepared by foreigners on a foreign soil, but by Englishmen, on land that

* Dr. Adolphus, of Jamaica, (for whose opinions I entertain the highest respect) on perusing my manuscript, has done me the favour of appending the following note;—'The abolition of slavery will render this quite impossible; the negroes will not work for wages; their idea of freedom is entire exemption from labour. The apprenticeship system will prove an unpleasant pastime.' If the worthy doctor's view be correct, there is the more necessity for the location of a white population in the island.

† The coffee plant was first introduced into Jamaica by Sir Nicholas Lawes in 1728, where it was cultivated on an estate called Temple Hall, in Linguanea. An act of legislature of the island was passed to encourage its growth; and in 1732 coffee was advertized in a Jamaica paper at a pistole a pound; in 1652 there were exported 60,000 lbs.—and in 1775, 440,000 lbs. Until 1788 little attention was paid to this singular berry. In the four years ending 30th September, 1794, the average exportation of coffee was 1,603,066 lbs.—in 1804 it amounted to 22,000,000 lbs.; and during three years ending 30th of September, 1807, the average exportation was more than 28,500,000 lbs., which, at £6 per cwt. its cost in Jamaica produced more than £1,700,000. The production is now about 20,000,000 lbs. yearly. It is calculated that £20,000,000 is invested in coffee estates. The coffee plant thrives in almost every soil about the mountains of Jamaica, and in the very driest spots has frequently produced very abundant crops.

is as much a part and parcel of the empire as any field around London.

Cotton, indigo, and cocoa,* were at one time extensively cultivated; but they have principally given place to the foregoing staples of the island. Various drugs, dye stuffs, and spices, are of excellent quality. Aloes, cochineal, spikenard, canella, liquorice root, castor oil nut, vanilla, peppers, arrow-root, ginger, ipecacuanha, scammony, jalap, cassia, euphorbia, senna, &c. all attest the fruitfulness and capabilities of the soil and climate. The cultivated vegetables of Europe arrive at great perfection. Maize is the principal corn grown, and together with calavances, the yam and sweet potatoe, cassava, &c. form the chief food of the negroes. Various grasses thrive, but Guinea grass abounds; and, in consequence, of its indispensable importance in feeding the cattle that supply manure for the sugar plantations, it is considered next in importance to the sugar cane. It was introduced into the island in the early part of the last century by accident, having been forwarded with some Guinea birds that were sent as a present. The birds died, the seed was thrown away, the grass sprung up, and the cattle were observed to devour it eagerly, attention was accordingly paid to the subject. It now grows all over the island, thriving in the most rocky places, and rendering (like sainfoin) lands productive that were heretofore considered barren, and making good hay, if salted or sprinkled with sea water when being ricked. The immigration of European industry would doubtless make further additions to West Indian agriculture.

Of vegetables—potatoes (Irish and sweet), yam, cassava, peas and beans of every variety, artichokes, beet root, carrots and parsnips, cucumbers and tomatoes, radishes, celery, choco, ochro, Lima bean, Indian kale, calalue, various salads, cabbage trees (two hundred feet high!)†, &c. all flourish in

* Blome, who published a short account of Jamaica in 1672, mentions the existence of sixty cocoa walks. At present there can scarcely be said to be a plantation in the whole island.

† Some cabbage trees have been known 270 feet high.

abundance; and, indeed, it may be said that Autumn is perpetual in Jamaica, for every month presents a fresh collation of fruits and vegetables, and some species are at maturity all the year round. The bread-fruit tree, cocoa nut, plaintain and banana, alligator pear, the delicious mellow fig, pine, cashew—papaw—and custard apples, orange, lime, lemon, mango, grape, guava, pomegranate, soursop, shaddock, plums, tamarind, melon, wall and ches-nut, mulberry, olive, date, citron, and many other delicious fruits, all arrive at perfection. The native and exotic grasses are excellent for cattle and horses, in particular that called the Scotch grass, which vegetates rapidly, and grows to the height of five or six feet, with long and juicy joints. Five horses may be fed for a year on an acre of this vegetable, allowing each, every day, fifty-six lbs. of grass.

Of *Trees* Jamaica possesses a great variety, one of the most valuable of which is the pimento,* which flourishes spontaneously and in great abundance on the N. side of the island; its numerous white blossoms, mixing with the dark green foliage, and with the slightest breeze diffusing around the most delicious fragrance, give a beauty and charm to nature rarely equalled, and of which he who has not visited the shady arbours and perfumed groves of the tropics can have little conception. This lovely tree, the very leaf of which bruized emits a fine aromatic odour, nearly as powerful as that of the spice itself, has been known to grow to the height of from thirty to forty feet, exceedingly straight, and having for its base the spinous ridge of a rock, eight or ten feet above the surface of the hill or mountain. A single tree will produce one hundred and fifty of the raw, or one hundred pounds of the dried fruit. The indigenous forest and even exotic trees of Jamaica grow to a prodigious height; the palmetto royal is frequently found one hundred and forty feet, the vast trunks of the ceiba, (wild cotton tree) and fig-trees, often measure ninety feet from the base to the limbs, and the

* The cultivation of pimento is extending (as is also that of ginger) in Jamaica.

trunk* of the former, when hollowed out, has formed a boat capable of holding one hundred persons. There is a great variety of timber for agricultural and household purposes, and some exquisitely beautiful cabinet woods.

The trumpet tree grows from thirty to forty feet high, its trunk and branches are hollowed and divided with membraneous septæ like the bamboo: it produces an agreeable fruit, like our strawberry, the strong and fibrous bark is used for cordage, and the light trunks are for bark logs, &c. The bamboo is plentiful, and houses built by the Spaniards with it at St. Jago de la Vega (Spanish Town) are still standing. Cedar, mahogany, lignum vitæ, Spanish elm, mangeneel, bræziletto, the valuable palmetto,† (thatch), white bully, or galimeta, dog-pigeon-rose—beef and iron woods, the black mangrove, greenheart, &c. all flourish.‡

The attention of the planters is being now turned to the cultivation of other vegetable productions, which I doubt not will be attended with success; for instance, a correspondent in a recent Jamaica journal, makes the following observations on a plant of great beauty and worth, the utility of cultivating which is deserving of consideration in our other colonies, and indeed at home.

'The Sun-flower is a plant of peculiar beauty, and which, if cultivated with attention, may be rendered valuable in a pecuniary point of view. Its fecundity in this climate renders it far preferable to corn for the common purposes of food for poultry; and when mixed with corn in the proportion of a pint to two quarts, it is valuable as a nutricious food for horses. As a proof of its fruitfulness, I have lately gathered several hundred heads; and averaging the quantity collected by the stalks from whence taken, I find that each stalk may have produced eleven flowers, and that eight flowers will yield one quart of clean seed, by a process much less laborious than rubbing out corn.' [Maize, called "corn," is husked by the hand.]

'For the production of an oil, in my opinion preferable to olive oil, the seeds of the Sun-flower are more easily manufactured than even the Castor

* The wild pine commonly takes root in the forks of the ceiba, and by the conformation of its leaves, catches and retains the rain water, each leaf holding about a quart; it would seem as if nature designed it to supply the gigantic trunk with occasional moisture.

† Has been found 140 feet high. ‡ Vide Guyana Chapter.

nut, and will yield a greater proportion either by heat or pressure. In short, like many other productions of Jamaica which are overlooked in the eager pursuit of Sugar and Coffee, the Sun-flower, which here grows with such superior luxuriance, needs only to be more extensively cultivated to add to the valuable gifts of nature in the torrid zone. The best manner of planting them, as indeed I have seen practised in the North of Italy, is to dibble them, in rows about three feet asunder, putting two seeds into each hole; in this way I have reaped the ripe seed ten weeks after planting.'

Animals. Animal life has attained neither great variety nor size in the new world, and the islands appertaining to that vast continent, when discovered, were found to contain but few species; Jamaica, for instance, had only eight varieties of quadrupeds,—the agouti, peccari, armadillo, opossum, racoon, musk rat, alco, and monkey, of these only the first and last remain; all the domesticated animals of Europe thrive, and are found to multiply fast; there are many varieties of beautiful lizards, and the feathered tribe are exceedingly numerous, and some (especially the parrot) of fine plumage. Of the wild fowl, the most delicious are the ring-dove and the rice bird of S. Carolina, which, after fattening on the rice there arrive in Jamaica in countless numbers in October, to feed on the Guinea grass. Epicures compare the plump and juicy flesh of this delicacy to the Ortolan.

Fish. The rivers and sea coast abound in fish of various quality, and there are several salt ponds which, if attended to, might render the planters in a great measure independent of supplies of salt fish from Europe.

The sprat, herring, dolphin, anchovie or silver fish; the flying, sword, sun, parrot, rock, king and gar fishes; flounder, sole, eel, bream, snapper, mullet, perch, boneeto, Spanish mackerel, sea devil, (weighing from 100 to 300 lbs.) old wife, shark, porpoise, sting ray, thrasher, &c. &c. may be caught; sea and land turtle are plentiful and good eating.

Reptiles. The silver, black and yellow snakes are numerous, excepting the former; the yellow is considered good eating by the negroes; the alligator, together with varieties of lizards, guanas, and chameleons, are natives of the isle.*

* The animal kingdom of the West Indies is fully detailed in Chapter I.

POPULATION. It is a melancholy reflection that the aboriginal inhabitants of Jamaica, to the amount probably of several hundred thousand, were destroyed by the European colonists within fifty years after their settling on its shores; had they been preserved, as sound policy as well as humanity would have dictated—and of which the island of Ceylon, with its million of coloured inhabitants, afford us an excellent illustration, the deadly curse of slavery—doubly curst to the enslaved and the enslaver—would have been avoided, and an incalculable amount of human misery prevented.

We have no authentic accounts of the Indian population on the island when first visited by Columbus; all accounts agree in representing it as densely peopled—within half a century they had all ceased to exist!* The original Spanish colony consisted of seventy persons, whose numbers were rapidly increased by immigration, until the riches of the main land caused Jamaica to be comparatively neglected, and the incursions of freebooters rendering property insecure checked population; it would appear that the Spaniards began early to import negro slaves, but on the capture of the island by the British in 1655, Venables stated the whole population to be—not more than 1,500 Spaniards and Portuguese and an equal number of negroes and mulattoes, although Spain had been one hundred and forty-six years in possession of the island. The troubles in England during the common wealth and the early years of the restoration, contributed materially to people our western colonies, and Jamaica exhibited the following progressive rate of population.†

* Las Casas says—'they hanged these unfortunates by thirteen, in honour of the thirteen Apostles;—I have beheld them throw the Indian infants to their dogs,—I have heard the Spaniards borrow the limb of an human being to feed their dogs, and next day return a quarter to the lender!'

† Seven years after the conquest of Jamaica by England a census was taken, of which the aggregate was—2,600 men, 645 women, 408 children, and 552 negroes. In this census the acres under cultivation are 2,917.

Year.	Whites.	Free Coloured.	Slaves.*	Year.	Whites.	Free Coloured.	Slaves.
1658†	4,500	——	1,400	1768	17,947	——	176,914
1670	7,500	——	8,000	1775	18,500	3,700	190,914
1734	7,644	——	86,146	1717	30,000	10,000	250,000
1746	10,000	——	112,428	1800	——	——	300,000

The number of Slaves in Jamaica at the expiration of each year, from 1800 to 1817 was‡—

A. D.	No. of Slaves.	A. D.	No. of Slaves.	A. D.	No. of Slaves.
1800	300,939	1806	312,341	1812	319,912
1801	307,094	1807	119,351	1813	317,424
1802	307,199	1808	323,827	1814	315,385
1803	308,668	1809	323,714	1815	313,814
1804	308,542	1810	313,683	1816	314,038
1805	308,775	1811	326,830	1817	345,252

	Men.	Women.	Children.	Negroes.	Stand of Arms.	Acres planted.
Precincts of Port Morant	168	53	37	126	99	467
Morant	122	14	17	53	35	129
Yallah	207	36	19	54	53	353
Ligonee (now Liguana)	553	139	135	31	121	480
St. Jago Town	207	52	42	32	38	83
Black River, Bower's Savannah, &c.	138	17	10	24	38	128
Angells	96	15	14	46	50	133
Seven Plantations, Bay of Macario, and Quathabacoa	216	41	48	45	95	205
Guanaboa and Guardaleone	351	38	26	63	89	610
Cagua	400	150	80	40	100	—
	2458	454§	448	514	618	2588

* From the year 1702 (when the importation was 800) to 1774, when the importation was 18,000) the number of slaves imported into Jamaica was *half a million*, of which 130,000 were re-exported, and of those retained in the island not more than 19,000 were alive in 1775.

† Census of Jamaica, December 12, 1661.

‡ I give these returns, together with many other documents, as historical records for future comparison.

§ Some errata, but of no importance in a general view.

From 1817 to 1829 (the latest years before me) the Slave Population of Jamaica was—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Decrease by Manumission.	
				Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1817 ..	173,319	172,831	346,150	—	—	—	—	—	—
1820 ..	170,466	171,916	342,382	12,201	12,145	13,423	11,681	366	650
1823 ..	166,595	169,658	336,253	11,685	11,564	14,030	12,321	371	550
1826 ..	162,726	168,393	331,119	11,604	11,422	13,520	11,650	316	611
1829 ..	158,254	164,167	322,421	10,986	10,742	13,435	11,702	362	755
1832 ..									

I have prepared the following imperfect (yet the most complete which I have seen) view of the population of Jamaica from various documents laid before the Finance Committee of 1828.

PARISH AND COUNTY.	Area in Square Miles.	Whites.			Free Coloured.			Slaves.			Total of Males.	Total of Females.	Total of all Classes.
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.			
Kingston, Surry county	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35,000
St. George, ditto..	400	80	51	131	223	279	502	6,511	6,270	12,781	6,814	6,600	13,414
St. David, ditto ..	71	..	..	150	..	..	263	..	..	7,669	..	..	8,082
Port Royal, ditto..	37	204	112	316	303	420	723	3,535	3,369	6,904	4,042	3,901	7,943
St. Andrew, ditto .	124	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	14,584
St. Thomas in the East, ditto	..	..	..	500	..	..	800	..	..	24,500	..	..	25,800
Portland, ditto....	..	..	..	110	..	..	150	..	..	5,331	..	..	5,591
Vere, Middlesex county	300	126	13	139	120	90	210	3,847	3,953	7,800	4,093	4,056	8,149
St. Ann, ditto	349	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24,000
Clarendon, ditto..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20,000
St. Dorothy, ditto.	..	..	..	150	..	..	400	..	..	4,700	..	..	5,250
St. Mary, ditto....	..	..	..	583	..	..	1190	..	..	25,000	..	..	26,673
Manchester, ditto.	20	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21,000
Westmoreland, Cornwall	2728	550	120	670	502	548	1050	10,600	11,400	22,000	..	..	33,400
St. Elizabeth, ditto	625	491	266	..	883	1035	..	9,655	9,844	..	11,029	11,085	22,114
Trelawney, ditto..	331	..	..	900	..	..	1600	..	..	22,451	..	..	..
St. James, ditto ..	223	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24,000
Hanover, ditto ..	..	..	..	610	..	..	970	..	..	..	..	..	..
													22,451

I trust the view of the foregoing mutilated Table (some of the parishes having no place even in it) may, when it reaches Jamaica, stimulate the House of Assembly to cause an accurate census of the island to be immediately prepared.

It is impossible to state with accuracy the actual popula-

of Jamaica,* owing to some mistaken feelings the census has not been completed; by some it is said that the population of the island is half a million of mouths, which would give *seventy eight* persons to the square mile, a remarkable small proportion, particularly in comparison with Barbadoes, where there are *six hundred* to the square mile!

The following is a summary for 1833 of the returns of the number of slaves on each estate in the island; the number of stock, or horned cattle, and the quantity of land in cultivation and pasture; these returns are given in on oath.†—

Co. MIDDLESEX.

PARISHES.	Slaves.	Stock.	Acres of Land.
St. Catherine	7,507	5,976	64,768
St. Thomas in the Vale	10,733	3,127	79,668
St. John	5,985	985	62,060
St. Dorothy	5,142	3,358	40,149
Vere	8,002	3,630	59,086
Clarendon	16,156	5,999	183,891
Manchester	19,304	9,872	170,377
St. Ann	24,821	23,569	243,761
St. Mary	23,544	8,900	122,726
Total	121,194	65,416	1,026,486

Co. CORNWALL.

Hanover	21,826	14,563	115,741
Trelawny	25,337	25,557	168,947
St. Elizabeth	18,371	8,152	216,542
St. James	22,019	17,034	145,456
Westmorland	19,599	18,047	172,166
Total	107,152	83,373	818,852

Co. SURREY.

PARISHES.	Slaves.	Stock.	Acres of Land.
Kingston	5,265	345	3,612
Port Royal	5,965	405	26,008
St. Andrew	13,545	2,183	79,183
St. Thomas in the East	23,319	6,362	132,395
St. David	7,417	1,771	45,858
Portland	7,267	1,682	13,557
St. George	11,508	3,707	89,773
Total	74,286	16,455	390,386

GRAND TOTAL.

	Slaves.	Stock.	Acres of Land.
Middlesex	121,194	65,416	1026,486
Surrey	74,286	16,455	390,386
Cornwall	107,152	83,373	818,852
	302,632	165,244	2235,724

* By some the number of whites is estimated at 35,000; of maroons there are about 1200 in Jamaica.

† The Jamaica Almanac for 1833, whence I derive this statement, is so imperfectly printed that whole columns are illegible, and even the summings up are incorrect; I have endeavoured to complete the return by a reference to the returns for 1832.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT AND LAW COURTS. Jamaica is ruled by a Governor, or Captain-general, (appointed by the crown,) aided by a council of twelve, somewhat similar to the House of Lords; and a House of Assembly answering to the home House of Commons. The Council is generally appointed by the King, through the Secretary of State for the Colonies, from among the most respectable colonists who are ex-officio justices of the peace. The Lieutenant-Governor, Chief Justice, Attorney-General, and the Bishop, are all ex-officio Members of the Council, each member of which is removable at the pleasure of his Majesty. The Assembly consists of forty-five members, each of the parishes sending two representatives; and Spanish Town, Kingston, and Port Royal, one additional member each; a *representative must possess a freehold of* £300. per annum* in any part of the island, or a personal estate of £3,000; an elector must be of age† and possessed of a freehold of £10. per annum in the parish for which he votes. The Governor has the title of his Excellency, and is invested with the chief civil and military authority; he is also Chancellor, Ordinary, and Vice-Admiral. On his death or absence, the government devolves on the Deputy or Lieutenant-Governor, if there be any: otherwise on the senior Councillor.

He has the disposal of such appointments as his Majesty does not reserve to himself or his Ministers; and as to such offices so reserved, whenever a vacancy occurs by death or removal, the Governor may appoint to them till they are filled up from home, and his appointee, till superseded, takes all the emoluments.

The Council, who are by courtesy severally addressed in the colonies by the title of Honourable, consists of twelve Members. They are appointed by mandamus from the

* Such was the law, but it has not been attended to.

† Persons of colour are now admitted to all the privileges of white persons, and there are no civil disabilities from religious differences.

King, and hold their offices during his Majesty's pleasure; but if at any time by death, absence from the island, or suspension, the Council should be reduced to less than the number limited by the instructions to the Governor, he may appoint as many persons out of the principal freeholders, inhabitants of the island, to be Members of the Council, as will make up such number; which persons so appointed may act as Councillors until they are disapproved, or others are appointed by his Majesty. The Governor may, however, suspend any of the Members of the Council from sitting, voting, or assisting therein, if he find just cause for so doing; but he must, by the first opportunity, signify to the English Government any vacancy in the Council, from whatever cause it may arise.

The duty of the Council is to give advice to the Governor or Commander in Chief for the time being, when required; and they stand in the same relation to the Governor in the colony as the Privy Council in England does to his Majesty; they are also a constituent part of the Legislature of the colony, corresponding with the British House of Peers; and, finally, they sit as Judges on certain occasions.

The General Assembly are the Representatives of, and chosen by, the people, and correspond with the British House of Commons, and its utmost duration is seven years.*

The Governor, with the advice and consent of the Council, may, from time to time, as occasion requires, summon the General Assembly together, and may, of his own authority, adjourn, prorogue, and dissolve them.

* The laws and statutes of England passed previously to the settlement, unless they are from their enactments inapplicable to the local circumstances of Jamaica, apply to the colony. Statutes passed in England since 1728, unless they relate to trade and navigation, are not in force there. The Assembly have all the privileges of the House of Commons in England; they have the sole power of levying taxes, and the distribution thereof, with the exception of an annual permanent revenue to the Crown of £10,000. the salary of the Speaker of the Assembly is £ 1,000 per annum.

The Council and General Assembly, with the concurrence of the King, or his representative the Governor, may make laws, statutes, and ordinances for the public peace, welfare, and good government of the colony, so that they be not repugnant, but as near as conveniently may be agreeable, to the laws and statutes of Great Britain.

By an order in Council, dated 15th January, 1800, it is declared, that in all cases when his Majesty's confirmation is necessary to give validity and effect to any act passed by the legislature of any of his Majesty's colonies or plantations, unless his Majesty's confirmation thereof be obtained within three years from the passing of such act in any of the said colonies or plantations, such act shall be considered disallowed.

By the English statute, 6 Geo. 3. c. 12, all the British colonies are declared to be dependent upon the Imperial Crown and Parliament of Great Britain, who have full power to make laws to bind such colonies in all cases whatsoever. But by the 18 Geo. 3. c. 12, the King and Parliament declared, that thenceforth they would not impose any duty payable in the colonies, except for the regulation of commerce, the produce whereof should always be applied to the use of the colony in which it is levied.

The Supreme Court. The jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, of the Supreme Court is co-extensive with those of the Courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer, (and Insolvent Debtors), in England, taken collectively, and it has also the exclusive power of hearing and deciding on informations for the breach of any act of Parliament or Assembly relating to trade and navigation, or for laying any duties or customs on the import of goods, wares, and merchandizes into, or on the exportation thereof from, the the island; also on informations for land under the quit rent acts, and all escheats. It is likewise a court of appeal from the inferior Courts of Common Pleas.

This Court sits in the capital of St. Jago de la Vega, or

Spanish Town, three times in the year, for three consecutive weeks each time, commencing respectively on the second Monday in February, the first Monday in June, and the first Monday in October in each year.

The Chief Justice is nominated by the Government in England, and has a patent of office under the great seal of the island; and the Assistant Judges are appointed either by his Majesty's Ministers or by the Governor of the island.* All the judges hold their offices during his Majesty's pleasure, and are removable by his sign-manual only; but they may, upon sufficient cause, be suspended by the Governor, with the consent of a majority of a board of the Council, till his Majesty's pleasure be known.

THE ASSIZE COURTS.† The jurisdiction of these Courts is limited to their respective counties of Surrey and Cornwall; and the Justices in the Courts to be held respectively before them have the same power, authority, and jurisdiction that the Justices of Assize and Nisi Prius, Justices of Oyer and Terminer, and Justices of Gaol Delivery have in England.

The Court of Assize for the county of Surrey sits three times in the year, for three successive weeks each time, if

* There are eight or ten Assistant Judges, who sit in rotation with the Chief Justice; they have each a salary of £500 per annum West Indian currency.

† The parishes, which are more like counties as to their extent, are under the supervision or government of a chief magistrate (termed the *Custos Rotulorum*) and bench of justices, who hold sessions of the peace every month, and Courts of Common Pleas, for trying actions to the extent of £20.;—debts not exceeding 40*s.* are determined by a single justice; each parish has a rector and church officers, according to the number of churches or chapels in the parish; the vestries consist of the *Custos*, two magistrates, ten vestrymen, and the rector; (the vestrymen are elected annually by the freeholders); the vestries have the power of assessing and appropriating local taxes, allot labourers for repairing the highways, appoint way-wardens, nominate persons called constables, for the collection of public and parochial rates, and regulate the police of their several parishes.

necessary; and such sittings are held at the town of Kingston, in that county, and commence respectively on the second Monday in April, the first Monday in August, and the second Monday in January.

The sittings of the Court of Assize for the county of Cornwall are held at the town of Montego-Bay, for the like period as the Court of Assize for the county of Surrey sits; and such sittings respectively commence on the second Monday in March, the first Monday in July, and the first Monday in November.

The Justices of Assize receive no salary, are appointed by the Governor, by a commission under the broad seal of the island. They, like the Judges of the Supreme Court of Judicature, hold their places during his Majesty's pleasure, and can be removed by his sign manual only; but, upon sufficient cause, may be suspended by the Governor, with the consent of the majority of a Board of Council, till his Majesty's pleasure be known.

Courts of Common Pleas. The several inferior Courts of Common Pleas in the island of Jamaica have jurisdiction over all causes (wherein any freehold is not concerned) to the value of £20 with costs, and no more, but by the aid of a *justicias* from the Chancellor, who is the Governor, they may hold Pleas to any amount. They are, however, absolutely restricted from intermeddling with or determining actions where the title to land or negroes is concerned. These Courts are held at the same time, and in the same place of the respective precincts, as the Justices of the Peace hold the Quarter-Sessions, once in every three months; some of them have the privilege of sitting oftener. The appointment and removal of the Judges of these Courts are under the controul of the Governor, and an appeal lies against their decision to the Supreme Court of Judicature.

Courts of Sessions. Every precinct has a Court of Sessions, held quarterly.

All manner of debts, trespasses, and other matters, not exceeding the value of 40*s.* wherein the titles of land are not

concerned, may he heard and determined by any Justice of the Peace of the island within their respective precincts, without appeal; and after judgment, the Justice may grant a warrant of distress, and, for want of sufficient distress, may imprison the defendant in the common gaol of the precincts till he pay the debt and charges.

[A law passed in 1828 extended this jurisdiction to sums not exceeding £10, but was lately disallowed by the King in Council. A bill for a similar object is now (December 1831) in progress through the legislature.]

In concluding this brief notice of the Common Law Courts, it may be observed, that their mode of proceeding is, in most respects, similar to that adopted in Westminster Hall.

COURT OF CHANCERY. The Governor sits as Chancellor, with the same powers of judicature that the Lord High Chancellor has in England, and the proceedings of this Court are similar to those of the English Court of Chancery.

THE COURT OF ERROR is held by the Governor and Council for hearing Appeals, in the nature of Writs of Error, from the Supreme and Assize Courts.

These Appeals, or Writs of Error, are allowed and regulated by his Majesty's instructions to the Governor.

An appeal also lies from the judgment of the Court of Chancery, to his Majesty in his Privy Council under certain restrictions.

On an appeal to the King in Council, the proceedings must be transmitted, and the party appealing must proceed, within a year after the pronouncing of the decree or order appealed against.

THE COURT OF VICE-ADMIRALTY has two distinct jurisdictions; by one of which it is an *Instance* Court for deciding all maritime causes, and by the other a *Prize* Court: its practice is similar to that of the High Court of Admiralty in England, to which Court, or to the King in Council, an appeal lies from its decision. The Judge is appointed by the Government in England, and holds his office during his Majesty's pleasure; but may be suspended by the Governor

for good cause, with the consent of a majority of a board of Council, till his Majesty's pleasure be known.

THE COURT OF ORDINARY is for determining ecclesiastical matters, and the Governor presides in it as judge.

The English Bankruptcy Laws are not in force in Jamaica, but there is an '*Insolvent Debtors' Act*,' by which a debtor, on making oath that he is possessed of no property above bare necessaries, and delivering his books, if he has any, into the hands of the Deputy Marshal or Sheriff's Deputy, he is exonerated from all demands against him after suffering three months' imprisonment. Any person leaving the island must give three weeks' notice on account of creditors.

MILITARY FORCE.—The military establishment of the island generally comprises the head-quarters of four European regiments of the line; one West India regiment, composed of Caffres or W. Coast African negroes; a strong detachment of Artillery; altogether comprising about 3,000 men; and of Colonial militia, from 16 to 18,000 men at arms,* comprising in *Middlesex County*, a regiment of horse of eleven troops, well equipped and mounted, and nine infantry regiments; in *Surrey County*, a regiment of horse of nine troops, and eight regiments of infantry, with artillery; in *Cornwall County*, a regiment of horse of six troops, and six regiments of infantry; and to each regiment are attached two field pieces and a company of artillery; the whole well appointed and proving a most efficient force in case of internal insurrection or foreign aggression.

The following detail shows the strength of the *European*

* All white males, from the age of fifteen to sixty, are obliged by law to provide themselves with suitable clothing, and to enlist in either the cavalry or infantry of the militia. Substitutes are not allowed. When on permanent duty (which occurs on the proclaiming of martial law) the militia receive pay 2*s.* 6*d.* a day and rations; arms and ammunition are found by the government. When the militia and line act together, a lieutenant-colonel of the latter has the rank and command of a major-general of the former, a major of brigadier-general, and a captain of lieutenant-colonel, &c.

troops employed in Jamaica, the number of deaths, and the annual ratio of decrement by death per cent per annum, from the year 1818 to 1828 inclusive.*

Years.	Strength.	Deceased.	Ratio of Loss.
1812	4,826	474	9.8
3	4,128	371	8.9
4	3,902	322	8.2
5	4,331	336	7.7
6	4,235	434	10.2
7	4,322	317	7.3
8	3,025	230	7.6
9	2,969	754	25.4
20	2,546	301	11.8
1	2,885	310	10.6
1822	2,400	441	18.3
3	2,476	155	6.2
4	3,150	235	7.4
5	2,644	777	29.3
6	2,237	176	7.3
7	3,083	636	20.6
8	2,700	192	7.1
Mean	3,287	438	13.3

It will be observed that, in 1828, the ratio of loss was small, owing to the judicious arrangements of Sir James M'Gregor, seconded by the Medical Staff and Colonial Legislature, the health of the troops has since materially improved.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.—The annual income or ways and means of the island, on an average of ten years, ending 1831, was as follows:—

Poll Tax (at 5s. 10d. per head on Slaves, and 2s. per head on stock, exempting Working Stock on Plantations), Rents at 1s. 8d. in the £., and Wheat at 20s. £105,000
Tax on Transient Traders, - 150
Arrears of former Years' Taxes, 3,000
Land Tax, - - 23,700
Deficiency Tax, - 14,000
Rum Duty, - - 24,000
Additional Duty on Wines and Spirits, - - 15,000
Tea Duty, - - 1,400
Duties on Goods from foreign Ports, - - 4,800
On Goods from United States, £31,000
Surplus of Revenue, - 8,300
Stamp Duty, - 19,000
For Arms and Gunpowder, 900
Balance of Cash 30th September, 1830, - - 147,945
Duty on Cattle imported, 1,000
Tonnage Duty on Ships to pay Custom House Salaries, 25,000
Loan to be raised, - 50,000
Debts due to Public on Judgments 500
Double Duties received by Officers of Customs and refunded, 15,048

* This statement has been obligingly furnished me by Mr. Henry Marshall, Deputy Inspector-General of Army Hospitals, whose zeal in pursuit of science endears him to every friend of humanity.

Excluding the shillings and pence (as given in the Parliamentary Return) the total ways and means thus given for Jamaica in 1831, is £489,743. The return is certainly not a very explicit one, and it is difficult, if not indeed impossible, to ascertain the actual state of taxes in the island, and the nature of their bearing or operation on commerce.

Jamaica Expenditure (as laid before Parliament in the return whence the foregoing statement is derived) defrayed by the Island in 1831.—

Governor,	£5,500	Alien and Bonding Office,	£600
Chief Justice,	4,000	Island Agent,	2,542
Assistant Judges,	3,400	Captains of Forts,	669
Speaker of Assembly,	1,400	Officers of Assembly,	6,146
Governor's Secretary,	3,000	Island Botanist,	560
Officers of His Majesty's Customs,	23,390	Engineer and Surveyor of Public Works,	740
Clergy of Established Church,*	23,593	Storekeeper,	500
Ditto Presbyterian,	†1,201	Receiver General,	7,000
Ditto Roman Catholic,	‡200	Law Expenses and Goals,	14,874
Charitable Institutions,	14,656	Roads, Bridges, and Public Buildings,	25,850
Army Expenses,	157,032	Printing	7,159
Clerk of Supreme Court and Provost Marshal,	1,160	Militia Arms and Gunpowder,	8,594
Secretary of Commissioners' of Public Accounts,	1,000	Board of Works,	8,890
Secretary of Ditto Correspondents,	300	Premium on Increase Slaves,	8,120
Clerk of Board of Works,	400	Registry and Vestry Returns,	5,378
Commissioners of Stamps,	1,550	Maroons and Superintendant of Maroon Towns,	2,030
Deputy Receiver General and Secretary at the Outports,	1,560	Miscellaneous,	10,000
Marshals of Militia Regiments,	1,050	Interest on Public Loans,	16,900
			370,000

* Curates' stipends 8000*l.*; Rectors' ditto, 11,718*l.*; Registrar and Appositor to the Diocese, 475*l.*; Annuitants, being widows and orphans of the Clergy 2,000*l.*; Expenses of building chapels, 1,400*l.*—Total 23,593*l.*

† Presbyterian Institutions, 301*l.*; Support of Kirk in Kingston, 700*l.*; Presbyterian Charity Schools, 200*l.*—1.201*l.*

‡ Pay, 14,000*l.*; Contingent Accounts, 20,645*l.*; Rations, 72,000*l.*; Ditto to 1st April, 1831, 35,700*l.*; Repairs of Barracks, 10,483*l.*; Lodg-

The Jamaica budget for 1832 gives the taxes and internal duties at £207,367; duties on vessels and cargoes £95,970; the certificates in circulation were £399,205;* and the loan certificates, including £64,415 loan deposits, was £250,035. Of the expenditure, the *military* amounts to £184,143, besides £222,729 for the general defence of the island, of which £176,691 was incurred for martial law in 1832. The civil expenditure was £85,078, of which £15,544 was for interest. On a general view, it may be stated that the annual public revenue of Jamaica is £300,000; and the vestry, or parish, or local taxation of the different counties, a nearly similar sum. The poll-tax on slaves heretofore formed the largest item of the public income. How the amount is in future to be supplied, has not been devised. So far from Jamaica and other of the colonies being a drain on the *home* exchequer, it will be seen that they add considerably to the *national* exchequer; this one island alone contributing nearly half a million of money per annum! †

MONIES. The West India islands are much in want of some established currency; in no two islands is the currency

ings for Officers, 2,090*l.*; Island Pay, ditto, 997*l.*; Sundry Wharfage, Water, &c. for Troops, 1,115*l.*—Total 157,032*l.*

* The distribution of the certificates in circulation, from 1822 to the year 1832, is as follows:—Of 1822, 645*l.*; 1825, 6,535*l.*; 1826, 41,203*l.*; 1827, 79,928*l.*; 1828, 61,741*l.*; 1829, 39,965*l.*; 1830, 96,499*l.*; 1831, 10,825*l.*; 1832, 12,000*l.*; and of 1832, comprising 1*l.* 2*l.* and 3*l.* certificates in circulation was, 49,864*l.* The legal rate of interest is six per cent.; the Government borrow at five.

† Mr. Burge says—'The annual expenditure of Jamaica is £489,849; to this must be added £10,000, which is annually raised, and is a perpetual revenue granted to the Crown, and made applicable to the orders of the Governor in Council, and over which the House of Assembly exercises no superintending control.' It was given in evidence before Parliament in 1832, by the same authority, that 'the island of Jamaica sustains the whole burden of its Government, with the exception of the salary of the Bishop; every other species of its expenditure, including its ecclesiastical, military and civil establishments, are defrayed by the island itself.'

alike, and they again vary in proportion to sterling money thus:—

	Sterling.	Currency.	Dollar.	Currency.
Jamaica,* . .	100*l.* =	140*l.*	1 =	6*s.* 8*d.*
Barbadoes, . .	100*l.*	135*l.*	1	6*s.* 3*d.*
Windward Isles, except Barbadoes, . .	100*l.*	175*l.*	1	8*s.* 3*d.*
Leeward Isles, .	100*l.*	200*l.*	1	9*s.*

At the established rate of the dollar in Jamaica, 4*s.* 3½*d. sterling* will be equal to 6*s. currency*, or 14*s.* 3½*d. sterling* to £1 *currency*. The metallic currency in the island is estimated at £100,000. A silver standard for all the West India possessions (of a depreciated value to that of the English coinage, so as to keep it in the settlements) would probably be productive of considerable benefit.

The following are the weights of the gold coins current in Jamaica:—

	Dwts.	Gr.		Dwts.	Gr.
Old Spanish doubloon,	17	8	The pistole,	4	8
Half doubloon, .	8	16	Half ditto,	2	4
Colombian doubloon, and its aliquot parts in the same proportion, ...				18	12

The old Spanish silver dollar weighs 17 dwts. 8 gr. and the small silver coin, called a *bit*, is of the value of 7½*d.* currency.

The paper currency consists entirely of the island checks issued by the Receiver-General, under the orders of the

* As regards Jamaica, this is the nominal par of exchange. In real transactions of buying or selling bills, the exchange is thus adjusted:—if bills bear a premium, say twenty per cent. then a bill for £100 sterling is said to be equal to £120 sterling; this latter sum, turned into Jamaica currency at 40 per cent. makes a bill for £100 sterling require about £168 currency. The relative value of the currencies of the mother country and colony varies, of course, from this ratio, as bills may at the time bear a higher or lower premium. In Barbadoes or the other colonies the currency, as compared with sterling, varies according to the demand for bills. In Jamaica £100 sterling is *always* equal to £140 currency.

Board of Accounts, and upon the security of the island and its revenue.*

COMMERCE. The trade of this important island is very considerable, and principally confined to the mother country.† Its maritime worth will be seen by the following return of Jamaica Shipping:—

	SHIPPING INWARDS.								SHIPPING OUTWARDS.							
	From Gt. Britain.		From Brit. Col.		From For. States.		Total Inwards.		To Great Britain.		To Brit. Cols.		To For. States.		Total Outwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1828	240	75,541	165	22,974	269	25,687	674	124,202	287	87,729	145	18,205	256	24,454	688	130,388

In 1830 the total shipping *inwards* was number 715—tons, 120,721; *outwards*, 690—tons, 130,747—employing altogether about 15,000 seamen.

* The state of the money market in Kingston 29th March, 1834, was—BILLS OF EXCHANGE. Commissariat, 30 days—18 per cent. premium, payable in Doubloons and Dollars. On London, at 90 days—12 1-2 to 15 per cent. premium. On America, at 30 and 60 days—7 1-2 to 10 per cent. premium. SPECIE.—Mexican Doubloons, 7 per cent. premium—very scarce. Columbian Ditto, 2 ditto ditto. Dollars, 5 to 6 ditto ditto. Small Silver 2 1-2 to 3 ditto ditto.

† Mr. Burge, the indefatigable agent for the colony, thus demonstrated before Parliament the importance of this colony to Great Britain.

Returns of the Net Revenue derivable from Imports into the United Kingdom from the Island of Jamaica, supposing that the whole of those Imports were to be entered for home consumption for the year 1831:—

	Duty. £.	s.	d.
1,429,093 Cwts. of Sugar, at 24s. per Cwt.	1,714,911	12	0
3,528,552 Galls. of Rum, at 9s. per Gall.	1,587,893	8	0
197 Puns. of Molasses, say 1,177 Cwts. at 9s. per Cwt.	529	13	0
15,644,072 lbs. of Coffee, at 6d. per lb.	391,101	11	0
1,304 Rs. 310 Bags. } Ginger, say 4,222 Cwts. at 11s. 6d.	2,427	13	0
4,974,302 lbs. of Pimento, at 5d. per lb.	1,363	2	0
4,526 Cwts. of Arrowroot, at 1d. per lb.	2,113	2	8
80 Puns. of Lime Juice, say 8,000 Galls. at 0¼d. per Gall.	10	0	0
673 Packages of Sweetmeats, say 6,730 lbs. at 3d. per lb.	84	2	6
279 Bales of Cotton, say 50,220 lbs. at 4d. per lb.	837	0	0
3,182 Hides, say 2,000 Cwts. at 4s. 8d. per Cwt.	466	13	4
7,361 Tons of Logwood, at 3s. per Ton	1,104	3	0
1,452 Tons of Fustic, at 3s. per Ton	217	16	0
328 Tons of Nicaragua Wood, at 15s. per Ton	246	0	0
319 Tons of Lignum Vitæ, at 10s. per Ton	159	10	0
244 Tons of Ebony, at 15s. per Ton	183	0	0
2,219 Logs { Mahogany and Cedar, } say at 4l. per Ton }	31,000	0	0
1,750 Pieces { Cabinet Wood, &c. } 3l. 15s. per Ton }			
29,324 Lance Wood Spars, at 1s. each	1,466	4	0
Total.. ..	3,736,113	10	6

A General Return of Imports and Exports to and from the Island of Jamaica, between the 29th September, 1828, and 29th September, 1829:—

IMPORTS.

	Flour.	Corn Meal.	Bread.	Rice.	Corn, Beans, Oats, &c.	Dry Fish.	Pickled Fish.	Staves and Heading.	Shingles.	Lumber.	Wood Hoops.	Live Stock.			
												Horses.	Mules.	Asses.	Cattle.
From Great Britain and Ireland	Bar. 3,429	Bar. 128	Cwts. 147	lbs. 226,971	Bus. 4,845	Quintals.	Tier. Bar. Kits. 46,474	52,003	Number.	Feet. 312,918	25,432	4	44	22	1
Foreign Ports in Europe	1,346				593			10,260				34			
British Plantations ..	7,129	3,791	369	47,351	1,676	1,455,329	136. 26,677. 2,572	3,004,342	3,841,890	4,286,769	94,000	48			
Foreign Ports within the Tropics	25,787	6,345	757	471,677	15,482			2,951,311	2,782,079	1,232,861		1,240	1,475	325	1,089
Total Imports..	37,691	10,264	1,273	745,999	22,596	1,455,329	136. 73,151. 2,572	6,017,916	6,623,969	5,832,548	119,432	1,326	1,519	347	1,090

EXPORTS.

	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Ginger.	Coffee.	Pimento.	Arrow Root.	Lime Juice.	Sweetmeats.	Cotton.	Hides.	Logwood.	Fustic.	Nicaragua Wood.	Lignum Vitæ.	Ebony.	Mahogany and Cedar.	Cabinet Wood.	Lance Wood Spars.
To Great Britain and Ireland ..	Hds. Tier. Bar. 90,289. 8,886. 2,178	Pun. Hds. Cks. 30,267. 2,326. 102	Pun 107	Bar. Bags. 1,304. 318	lbs. 18,581,045	lbs. 4,974,755	Bar. Kgs. 152. 4,060	Pun 80	Pac. 675	Bal. 279	No. 9,882	Tn. 7261	Tn. 1452	Tn. 228	Tn. 318	Tn. 244	Log 2219	Pie. 1750	No. 29,200
Foreign Ports in Europe		554. 11.				25,363						115	135			..			124
British Plantations ..	861. 709. 1,264	4,608. 166. 206	53	29. 9	123,304	130,829	38	94	20	14	519	27	1		18	..	258		
Foreign Ports within the Tropics		1,502. 17. 327	7		251,403	938,180	32.	42	20										
Total Exports..	91,150. 9,565. 3,382	36,931. 2,520. 646	167	1,333. 319	8,955,752	6,069,127	184. 4,098	216	715	293	10,401	7403	1588	328	336	244	2477	1750	29,324

An Account of Sugar, Rum, and other Produce, exported from the Island of Jamaica, from the year ending the 29th September, 1800, to the year ending 29th September, inclusive, 1829; extracted from the Journals of the House of Assembly at Jamaica:—

Years.	Sugar.			Rum.		Molasses	Ginger.		Pimento.		Coffee.
	Hds.	Tierc.	Bar.	Pun.	Hds.	Casks.	Bags	Casks.	Bags.	Casks.	lbs.
1800	96,347	13,549	1,631	37,166	1,350	..	3,586	444	12,759	616	11,116,474
1801	123,251	18,704	2,692	48,879	1,514	..	239	12	14,084	648	13,401,468
1802	129,544	15,405	2,403	45,632	2,073	366	2,079	23	7,793	591	17,961,923
1803	107,387	11,825	1,797	43,295	1,416	461	3,287	51	14,875	867	15,866,291
1804	103,352	12,802	2,207	42,207	913	429	1,854	1,094	19,572	1,417	22,063,980
1805	137,906	17,977	3,682	53,211	1,328	471	2,128	315	7,157	288	24,137,393
1806	133,996	18,237	3,579	58,191	1,178	499	1,818	485	19,534	1,094	29,293,036
1807	123,175	17,344	3,716	51,812	1,998	699	1,411	512	19,224	525	26,761,188
1808	121,444	15,836	2,625	52,409	2,196	379	1,470	436	6,529	225	29,528,673
1809	104,457	14,596	3,534	43,492	2,717	230	572	2,321	1,177	24,022	25,586,668
1810	108,703	4,560	3,719	42,353	1,964	293	1,881	520	21,163	4,276	25,885,285
1811	127,751	15,236	3,046	54,093	2,041	446	2,072	1,119	22,074	638	17,460,068
1812	105,283	11,357	2,558	43,346	1,531	151	1,235	804	7,778	598	18,481,896
1813	97,458	10,029	2,304	44,618	1,345	208	1,428	816	14,361	1,024	24,623,572
1814	101,846	10,485	2,575	43,486	1,557	145	1,668	884	10,711	394	34,045,585
1815	118,767	12,224	2,817	52,996	1,465	242	1,667	1,493	27,386	844	27,362,742
1816	93,881	9,332	2,236	35,736	769	166	1,118	2,354	28,057	851	17,282,293
1817	116,012	11,094	2,868	47,949	1,094	254	1,896	3,361	15,817	946	14,793,296
1818	113,818	11,388	2,786	50,195	1,108	407	1,067	2,326	21,071	941	25,329,456
1819	108,305	11,540	3,244	43,946	1,695	253	718	1,714	24,500	882	14,091,493
1820	115,065	11,322	2,474	45,361	1,783	252	316	1,159	12,880	673	22,127,444
1821	111,512	11,703	1,972	46,802	1,793	167	271	984	24,827	1,224	16,819,761
1822	88,551	8,705	1,292	28,728	1,124	144	72	891	18,672	699	19,773,992
1823	94,905	9,179	1,947	35,242	1,935	614	60	1,041	21,481	1,894	20,226,445
1824	99,223	9,651	2,791	37,121	3,261	910	52	2,230	33,308	599	27,677,239
1825	73,813	7,380	2,858	27,630	2,077	894	348	3,947	20,979	537	21,254,656
1826	99,978	9,514	3,126	35,610	3,098	549	517	5,724	16,433	522	20,352,886
									lbs.		
1827	82,396	7,554	3,441	33,348	3,099	214	186	4,826	2,807,522		25,206,020
1828	81,908	8,724	2,810	33,717	3,253	283	412	1,942	2,473,153		17,247,943
1829	91,150	9,564	3,392	36,931	2,513	167	319	1,333	6,069,127		18,955,722
1830											
1831											
1832											
1833											

As stated under *Guyana*, it is difficult to form a definite idea of the amount of property in any place. Mr. Colquhoun, in 1812, estimated Jamaica thus:—Negroes, £19,250,000; cultivated lands, (809,450 acres) £16,189,000; uncultivated, (1,914,812 acres) £1,914,812; buildings, utensils, &c. on estates, £12,709,450; stock on estates, £4,800,000; houses, stores, merchandize and furniture, £2,000,000; colonial shipping, £42,000; metallic money, £220,000; forts, barracks, &c. £1,000,000;—total, £58,125,298 sterling. The same authority estimated the productions *annually* raised, including cattle, esculents, &c. at £11,169,661; exports to the United Kingdom, £6,885,339—and to the other places, £384,322. It will be observed, therefore, that in the following statement I have undervalued the yearly creation and total amount of property in Jamaica,—

Nature and Value of Property Annually Created, Moveable and Immoveable, in Sterling Money* (1834).

PROPERTY ANNUALLY CREATED OR PREPARED.										PROPERTY MOVEABLE AND IMMOVEABLE.							Total Amount of Annually created Property.	Total Amount of Moveable and Immoveable Property.
										Land.			Domestic Property.					
Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Pimento.	Cotton.	Vegetable Food.	Animal Food and Fish.	Domestic Manufactures.	Income and Sundries.	Acres Cultivated or Patented.†	Acres Ungranted, or Waste.	Public Property, viz.	Dwelling Houses, Stores, Furniture, Plate, Clothes, Equipages &c.	Horned Cattle, Horses, Sheep, Swine, Poultry, &c.	Machinery, Agricultural and Manufacturing Implements, Ships, Boats, Roads, &c.	Metallic Money in Circulation.		
cwts. 1,500,000 at 20s. £1,500,000	gallons. 5,000,000 at 1s. 6d. 225,000	gallons. 50,000 at 10d. 2,083	lbs. 20,000,000 at 7d. 500,083	lbs. 5,000,000 at 4d. 83,000	lbs. 50,000 at 6d. 1,250	at £3.‡ per annum each, 1,200,000	at £5. per annum each, 2,000,000	Carpentering, Talloring, Smithing, &c. 2,000,000	1,600,000	2,240,000 acres. at £10. 22,400,000	2,000,000 acres. at 5s. 500,000	Forts, Barracks, Roads, Wharfs, Hospitals, Gaols, Buildings, &c. 10,000,000	5,000,000	1,000,000	5,000,000	100,000	£. 8,581,283	£. 44,900,000§

* Mr. Bridges estimates the "internal value and intrinsic cost of Jamaica" in 1826 thus—slaves, £24,000,000; lands patented, £18,000,000; forts and barracks, £1,000,000; private buildings, £12,000,000; stock, &c. £5,000,000; gold and silver coin, £200,000; total, £60,200,000 sterling. There seems to be no calculation for roads, wharfs, bridges, and other items.

† There are 2,235,732 acres of land in Jamaica for which Quit Rents are paid to the Crown. Mr. Burge thinks that, at least, 2,000,000 acres are cultivated.

‡ I take the total population of Jamaica at 400,000; some say it is nearer 500,000.

§ Taking the number of slaves in the island, in round numbers, at 300,000, and valuing them at £30 each, there would be a sum of £9,000,000 to add to this: happily, however, it is no longer necessary to make such calculations.

GENERAL POST-OFFICE, JAMAICA. The mails for all parts of the island are closed at four, P. M. every Saturday, and dispatched from the General Post-office the same day, at six, P. M. The return mails arrive at ten, A. M. every Thursday, and the letters are delivered at the General Post-office the same day, at noon. An extra mail for Spanish Town leaves the General Post-office, at nine, A. M. every Friday, and arrives again the following day, at eight, A. M. The rates of postage are from 7½*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* for single letters, according to distance.

Two packets are dispatched monthly from Great Britain for this island. The first sails from Falmouth on the Saturday after the first Wednesday; touches on her passage at Barbadoes, St. Vincent's, and Grenada; and after her arrival at Port Royal, where she remains two days, proceeds to Carthagena, where she remains until the mail, that is dispatched from Bogota on the 25th of every month, arrives, and, after her return to Port Royal, proceeds to Falmouth, touching at the Crooked Islands on her way home. Three Saturdays must intervene between her first arrival at, and final sailing from, Port Royal, and, unless postponed by the Governor, she sails on the Tuesday following the last Saturday. The second sails from Falmouth, on the Saturday after the third Wednesday, and heaves to off Jacmel to land a mail for St. Domingo. After arriving at Port Royal, she remains two days, when she proceeds to Belize, Honduras, where she remains two days; and from thence to Zampico, where she leaves for la Vera Cruz, and afterwards returns to Zampico, in doing which she is occupied ten or twelve days; and then proceeds to the Havanna, where she again remains two days; and finally prosecutes her voyage from thence to Falmouth, G. B. The mail for Great Britian is made up at the General Post-office, on the Monday previous to the sailing of the first packet, at four, P. M. The first packet is expected from Great Britain about the 20th of every month, and, if she arrives between Saturday and Tuesday inclusive, the mails for the country are forwarded by express. The second packet

may be looked for about a week after the former, in consequence of her not having to call at the Windward Islands in her route. There is no express post for the second packet.

THE PRESS, EDUCATION, AND RELIGION. I connect the three foregoing subjects under one head, because they are intimately blended with each other. The press is unshackled by stamp duties, and on the increase; there are six newspapers (two daily and four weekly), in the island, all well conducted, and displaying considerable talent;* every class of the community has its public organ, and there is, perhaps, less petty feeling and faction displayed than in many journals of the Mother Country. Education is rapidly progressing under the aid of the local government, as well as with the assistance of private individuals. In the expenditure budget of the island for 1831, there is nearly £ 10,000 allotted for free schools.† In 1821, (since which all accounts agree in admitting a very great increase), the public or free schools and scholars were, Schools, 23; Male Scholars, 1,125; Female, 912; Total, 2,037. (In 1827 the number of Scholars was 3,500.)

The efforts for the extension of religion have been great, whether they have produced a beneficial effect as yet it is difficult to say; the outlay by the colonial government for the purpose is considerable, viz. nearly £25,000 per annum, (vide Expenditure). The bishop of Jamaica (whose see extends over the Bahamas and Honduras), has £4,000 sterling per annum, and the archdeacon £2,000 ditto. There are twenty-one rectors, and altogether of clergymen of the established church fifty-seven. The Scots Presbyterian clergymen are in number four, the Wesleyan ditto about twenty-four, the Baptist ditto sixteen, and the Moravian eight. The crown livings in Jamaica were in the gift of the

* The Jamaica almanac stands much in need of reform, it is more barren of general information than those of some of the smallest islands in the West Indies. Those of 1832 and 1833 have in some degree improved.

† The Jamaica free school has 1,620*l.*; Wolmer's ditto, 1,500*l.*; Vere ditto, 1,120*l.*; and so on.

governor, in virtue of his station as such.* The established church clergy are paid partly by a stipend, partly by fees; take for instance the parish of St. Ann's, as an example; acres,235,260; slaves, 24,761; proprietors, 47. 6.; stipend, £378; fees, average, £200, vestry allowances, average, £400; church burials, £50; total, £1,028—with thirty acres of glebe and an island curate. Some parishes have a large glebe; thus, St. Elizabeth's has three hundred acres of glebe, a rectory and sixty-eight slaves, and the income is—stipend, £378; fees, £245; burials £50; total £673—and the aid of an island curate and auxiliary. The Rev. Mr. Bridges says that the average annual expenditure of Jamaica of late years, for her ecclesiastical establishment, has not fallen far short of £30,000, (an immense sum for so small a country). He gives the rectors' stipends at £8,820, the curates' salaries £10,550, the aggregate vestry allowances £3,430, and the average sum drawn from the inhabitants for surplice fees £5,372, independent of the annual expenditure in maintaining thirty-nine churches and chapels. Pluralities are not permitted, and the slave (or as he is now termed, the apprentice), is entitled to *demand* the gratuitous services of the clergy; these facts speak volumes in favour of the long calumniated colonists.

Before summing up this Chapter, it is necessary to advert to a dependency of Jamaica, termed

THE CAYMAN ISLES.

Locality. The Caymans are three small isles, in Lat. 19.20. N.; from thirty to forty leagues N. N. W. from Point Negrill, on the westward of Jamaica, the grand Cayman being the most remote. Cayman-braque and Little Cayman lie within five miles of each other, and about thirty-four miles N. from the Grand Cayman, which is about one mile and a half long, and one mile broad, and containing about 1,000 acres.

History. Columbus fell in with these islands on his return from Porto Bello to Hispaniola, and observing the

* Now in the gift of the bishop.

coast swarming with turtle, like ridges of rocks, he called them *Las Tortugas*.

The Caymans were never occupied by the Spaniards, but became the general resort of adventurers or rovers, (chiefly French), for the sake of the turtle, which rendezvoused here to lay their eggs in the sand, and then returned to the gulph of Mexico, Bay of Honduras, and the adjacent coast.* In 1655, when Jamaica was taken by England, the Caymans were still uninhabited.

Physical Aspect. Grand Cayman (the only island inhabited) is so low that it cannot be seen from a ship's quarter-deck more than twelve or fifteen miles off, and at some distance the lofty trees on it appear like a grove of masts emerging from the ocean. It has no harbour, but the anchorage on the S. W. coast is moderately good; on the other, or N. E. side, it is fortified with a reef of rocks, between which and the shore, in smooth water, the inhabitants have their *craals*, or pens, for keeping turtle in. The soil towards the middle of the island is very fertile, producing corn and vegetables in plenty, while hogs and poultry find ample provender.

Inhabitants, Government, &c. The present race of inhabitants, of whose numbers I have not been able to find any accurate account,† are said to be descended from the English Buccaneers, and, being inured to the sea, form excellent

* The instinct with which the sea turtle annually visits a favourite breeding spot is very remarkable. The Cayman isles near Jamaica are yearly frequented by innumerable shoals of these animals, who cross the ocean from the Bay of Honduras, a distance of 450 miles, without the aid of chart or compass, and with an accuracy, says the eloquent historian of Jamaica (Long), superior to the best efforts of human skill; it is affirmed that vessels which have lost their latitude in hazy weather, have steered entirely by the noise of the turtle in swimming. The shore of the Caymans is low and sandy, and consequently well adapted to hatch the turtle eggs; and the rich submarine pasturage around the islands afford abundance of nourishing herbage to repair the waste which must ensue after a female lays *nine hundred* eggs.

† Mr. Long states them to have reckoned in 1774, to the number of 106 white men, women and children. The Bishop of Jamaica in 1827 estimated the inhabitants at 1,600.

pilots and seamen; they have a chief or government officer of their own choosing and they frame their own regulations; justices of the peace are appointed from Jamaica, but in no other way are the inhabitants interfered with by the authorities in the chief settlement to which they undoubtedly belong. The islands are extremely healthy, and the people attain a longevity, as they do also on the Mosquito shore, greater than is enjoyed in Europe.

Social State and Future Prospects. The transition which society is now undergoing in all our slave colonies renders it impracticable to say much on this head: judging from the past, and from the temper with which the slave emancipation bill was passed,* a less gloomy, if not a

* The bill finally passed the Jamaica House of Assembly 12th December, 1833; the following are its leading provisions:—

From 1st August, 1834, the slaves, aged six and upwards, are to become apprenticed labourers without any formal indentures.

The slaves are divided into three classes—Prædial labourers, employed on their master's lands—Prædial labourers, employed on other lands—Non-prædial labourers.

The apprenticeships to cease in August, 1840, and the hours of labour not to exceed forty-five hours in the week. Non-prædial apprenticeships to cease in 1838.

Masters to be liable for the maintenance of discharged labourers above fifty, or those that are disabled.

Apprentices may purchase their discharge, without consent of the master, by paying the appraised value.

The value to be appraised by three Justices of Peace, who are to order sums advanced on the security of the negro, to be paid out of the purchase-money.

No apprentice to be removed from the island, nor to another estate, if the removal separates him from his wife or child.

An employer's right to an apprentice's labour may be transferred by bargain or sale, but families not to be separated.

The employer bound to supply the apprentice with food, clothes, and medicine.

Children under twelve, now born, to be indentured, and remain apprentices till twenty-one.

Special Justices to be appointed for the execution of the Act, who shall take cognizance of offences committed by negroes.

more happy augury, than has been indulged in may be formed for the future; the condition of the slave population has long been undergoing amelioration, and the coloured colonists have been admitted to those rights, and to that position in society to which their talents, wealth and conduct, might entitle them; no political or religious disabilities exist;* the progress of liberal institutions has been sufficiently gradual to allow of their taking permanent root, and affording that constitutional freedom which is the result of order, security of person, and the safe enjoyment of property.

I look not despondingly on the prospects of Jamaica, or the other West India islands or possessions; on the contrary, I think (as indeed has been demonstrated by Mr. Ward, in reference to the cultivation of sugar on the South American continent,) that the abolition of one of the direst curses with which mankind was ever afflicted, will place society on a surer basis, and give renewed stimulus and energy to every one possessed of property;† and when we reflect that out of

There are long regulations as to punishment, which we cannot abridge; but it is enacted that females are not to be flogged.

Sunday markets are to be abolished, and prædial labourers are to have Saturday free.

The Kingston Commercial Advertizer thus temperately comments on the new state of things,—

'The fate of the colony is now sealed, whether it be good or evil. Whether its resources will be developed, or its present means be totally annihilated, the revolution of time can alone fully determine. Prudence, self-preservation, and expediency, loudly proclaim the necessity of employing means for rendering the changes now recognized and legalized by the Legislature of Jamaica conducive to the public good. A great duty lies before us, which is to rightly inform the negro mind, and prepare him for performing those duties to himself, his neighbour, his master, and the country, so essential to the welfare of all, and to the peace and happiness of society.'

* A person of colour has now all the privileges of a white.

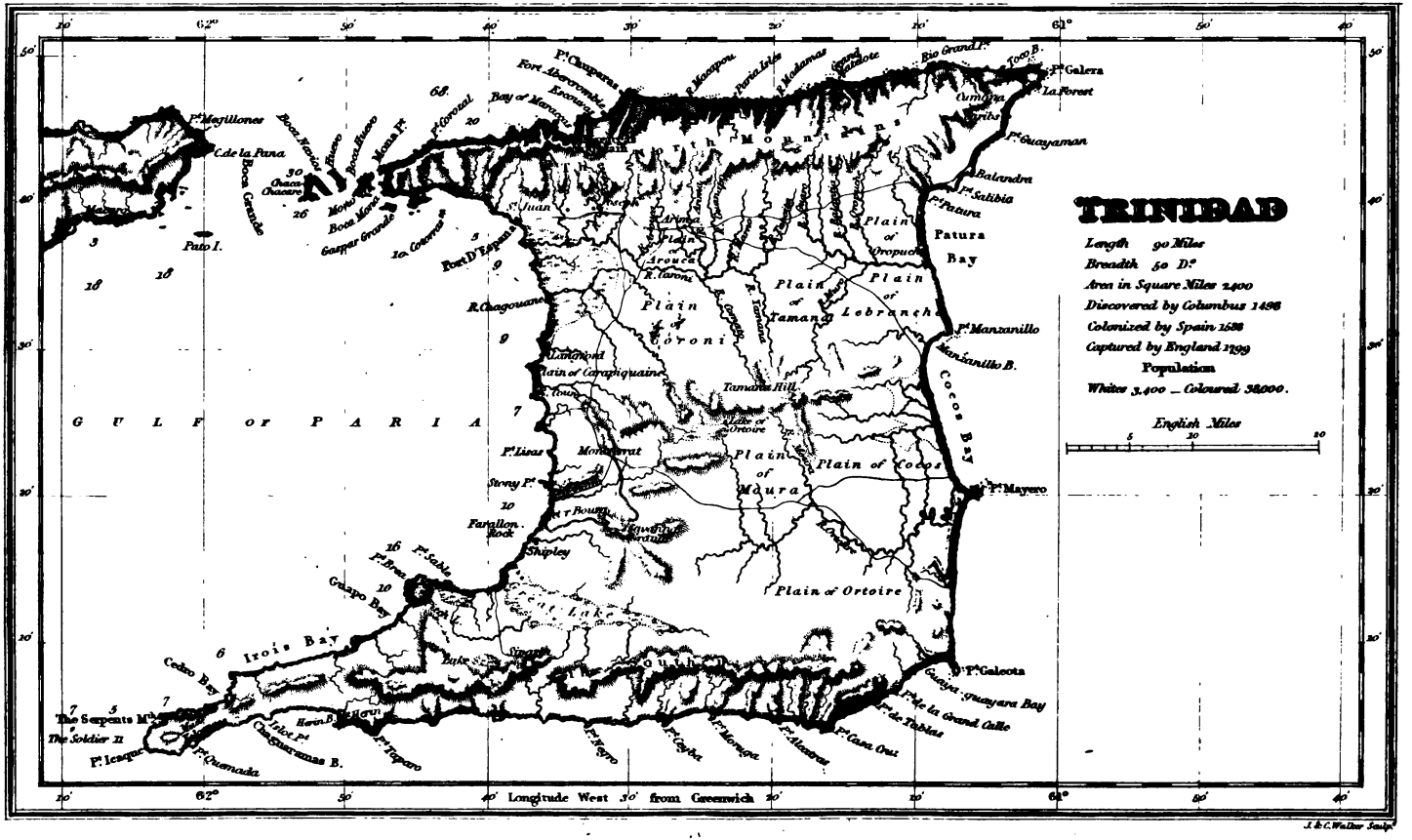
† I am indebted to the philanthropic Dr. Adolphus, of Jamaica, for the following note appended while perusing my manuscript; I agree with the worthy writer in hoping he may be mistaken.

'The new order of things may probably succeed in the smaller islands

upwards of 4,000,000 acres in Jamaica, only 2,235,732 are occupied, and with only *fifty-six* mouths to a square mile (Barbadoes has 816!) we see what ample scope there is for a developement of social prosperity and happiness. Lord Belmore justly observed, that the capabilities of this fine island would never be brought forward until slavery was abolished,—in this sentence his Lordship doubtless alluded to the introduction of free white labourers, the advantages of which will be found set forth under the *General View of the West India Colonies;* there are very many articles which might be largely cultivated and prepared in Jamaica, that would yield a more profitable return than sugar, such for instance as pepper, ginger, nutmeg, and various spices,—silk, indigo, cotton, drugs, opium and dye stuffs; but Jamaica, and our other possessions in the West India islands, have a right to demand from the mother country a reduction of the present enormous duties levied on their produce particularly in respect to the article sugar; the colonists of this island, in common with their brethren throughout the Western possessions, have ever distinguished themselves by loyalty and attachment to the mother country in times of difficulty and distress,—let that country now exercise common justice to her colonies, and they will prove, even more than they have yet done, a bulwark of maritime strength for the Empire, and a mine of commercial wealth for millions of the human race.

where almost the whole of the land is in cultivation; but in Jamaica, where there is such an abundance of uncultivated land, where vegetation is so rapid, and where such little labour is required, the negroes will never work for the paltry wages which the poor planters can ill afford to pay them; it will be found that they will, for the most part, prefer working for themselves. I hope I may be mistaken.'

For Montgomery Martin's History of the British Colonies Vol. 2, Possessions in the West Indies



Published by Cochrane and Mc Crone Waterloo Place July 5th 1834.

CHAPTER III.

TRINIDAD.

LOCALITY—GENERAL HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECTS—MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, HARBOURS, VOLCANOES, AND TOWNS—GULF OF PARIA—NAVIGATION—CLIMATE—VEGETABLE, MINERAL, AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS—GEOLOGY—STAPLE PRODUCE—POPULATION—COMMERCE—GOVERNMENT—FINANCE—VALUE OF PROPERTY, &c. &c.

LOCALITY. Most favourably situate for commerce, maritime strength, and political importance, at the mouths of the mighty Orinoco, as if destined by nature to form a barrier for restraining the impetuosity of its rapid tides and currents,* —the picturesque and valuable island of Trinidad extends from Lat. 9.30 to 10.51 N. and Long. 60.30 to 61.20 W. separated from the province of Cumana, on the S. American continent, by the gulf of Paria; ninety miles long by fifty broad, with an area of 2,400 square miles, or 1,536,000 acres.

GENERAL HISTORY. He who may be said to have discovered a new world for the purpose of giving a stimulus to the old, Christopher Columbus, was the discoverer of this fertile isle, on the 31st July, 1498, during his third voyage. According to some, it was named *Tri*nidad by that wonderful man, while distant thirteen leagues S.E. from it, on account of the three mountain tops seen in that position. According to others, it was thus named, in conformity to the piety of the times, in honour of the Holy Trinity. The island was then densely peopled by Caribs of a mild disposition, of much industry, finely formed, and of a lighter colour than the aborigines or inhabitants of the other islands. These people remained unmolested until the Spaniards took possession of Trinidad in 1588, when they fell a sacrifice to the cupidity and religious bigotry of the Castilians, who, as in Jamaica,

* The E. mouth of the Orinoco, or *Great* Serpent, is about nine miles wide.

drafted off to the mines those who escaped a more sanguinary death by fire or the sword; but a few, indeed, were saved by the apostle of the New World—the benign, the eloquent, the heroic Las Casas.* The occupying Spaniards forced the Indians to cultivate, as servants, that which they once held as masters, and negroes were brought in from Africa to aid their labours. The chivalrous Sir Walter Raleigh visited Trinidad in 1595, and states that the inhabitants then cultivated excellent tobacco and sugar canes. The Spaniards, to divert his attention, described to him the El-Dorado, where the rivers were full of gold dust; but, on Raleigh's return from exploring the Orinoco, he entered into a treaty with the Indians (then at mortal enmity with the Spaniards), marched with them, attacked and carried by assault the capital of San Josef, and put the garrison of thirty men to the sword. The English Government disowned this action of hostilities; yet Spain paid little attention to her valuable possession, being then fully occupied with conquests on the contiguous continent. The population and trade of Trinidad were subsequeutly almost extinguished,† and, in 1783, the island contained but a very small number of inhabitants considering its long settlement;‡ while its sole commerce consisted in bartering cocoa and indigo for coarse cloths and agricultural implements with the smugglers from St. Eustatia. The severing of the British

* Mr. Burnly, a Member of Council for Trinidad, on perusing my manuscript, has appended to it the following note:—'I consider the accounts of the cruelties of the Spaniards to be very apocryphal. The Indians died off because they endured no labour, which must have been the opinion of Las Casas, who first recommended the introduction of Africans—certainly not for the purpose of being worked to death.' Unfortunately for the memory of the Spaniards of those days, their demoniac cruelties were attested by too many eye-witnesses to admit of doubt. The Indians were drafted by their tyrants from the islands to work on the main land, and the object of Las Casas in recommending the introduction of Africans, was to save the Indians from total destruction.

† In 1676 Trinidad was captured by the French, but almost immediately restored to Spain.

‡ Viz. whites 126, free coloured 295, slaves 310, and Indians 2,032.

provinces in N. America from the mother country, and the fear that the Castilian dominions in S. America would follow the example thus set them, induced the Council of the Indies at Madrid to lend a willing ear to an enterprizing planter, named Saint Laurent, who had visited Trinidad, from Grenada, and thence proceeded home to enlighten the Spanish Government as to its true interests, not merely in reference to the fertility of the island, but as a commercial emporium at the mouths of the Orinoco, as also in regard to the numerous advantages of its geographical position in a political point of view. The ministers entered actively into the views of Saint Laurent; many embarrassments under which Trinidad laboured with respect to its commerce and agriculture were removed; an edict was passed, permitting *all foreigners* of the Roman Catholic religion to establish themselves in the colony, and they were protected for five years from being pursued for debts incurred in the places the new colonists had quitted. In consequence of these measures, and owing to the indomitable energies of Laurent, as also to the disturbed state of St. Domingo, which drove numerous planters with their slaves from that island, crowds of adventurers and abundance of capital poured into Trinidad from Europe, from continental America, and from the British and French possessions in the west, bringing their industry, skill,* and perhaps ill-gotten wealth (the property of numerous creditors, who could not touch them for five years), for the benefit of their new home.

The number of inhabitants, as will be seen under the head of *population*, rapidly increased; and, as a mixed society,

* In 1787 M. de la Perouse established the first sugar plantation, and in 1797 there were 159 large sugar plantations, 130 coffee farms, 60 cocoa ditto, and 103 cotton ditto, besides many small plantations, the whole yielding 7,800 hds. of sugar, 330,000 lbs. of coffee, 96,000 lbs. of cocoa, and 224,000 lbs. of cotton; and while in 1783 a Dutch house at St. Eustatia carried on all the commerce of the colony in a vessel of 150 tons burthen, in 1802 the island employed 15,000 tons of shipping for the transport of its produce: such have ever been the beneficial effects of relieving the industry of man from shackles and impediments on free intercourse with his fellows.

containing the germs of so many evil passions, required vigorous control, a strong government was formed under Don Josef Chacon, a naval captain, one of whose earliest measures was the expulsion of the dissolute monks, the prevention of the demoniacal inquisition, the granting of fertile lands to new colonists, with advances from the royal treasury to purchase cattle and implements of husbandry, and the providing freedom and safety for mercantile speculations. The revolution in France, and the disturbances in her colonies, added numbers and wealth to Trinidad; the whole face of the island was changed; and, in four years, the magnificent capital of *Port of Spain* usurped the place of a few miserable fishers' palm leaved huts. Trinidad was then a sixth dependant on the government of Caraccas.

On the 16th of February, 1797, Admiral Harvey, with four sail of the line, appeared off Trinidad; the Spanish Rear Admiral, Apodaca, who then anchored at Chagaramus with three first rate ships of the line and a fine frigate; instead of giving battle to Harvey—*burned his ships*,—retreated to Port of Spain, reciting his rosary at the head of a band of priests—'well, Admiral,' said Chacon, 'all is lost, you have burned your ships."—'No,' said the gallant and pious Admiral, 'I have saved the image of San Jago of Compostella, the patron of my ship and myself,' exhibiting the image of the saint! General Sir Ralph Abercrombie, with 4,000 men, marched to Port of Spain, and, after a few discharges of artillery, Trinidad became a British colony.

Physical Aspect.—Trinidad appears, at a distance, like an immense ridge of rocks along its whole N. front: but, on entering the Gulf of Paria, the mind is imbued with intense emotions on beholding one of the most magnificent, variegated, richly luxuriant panoramas that nature ever formed; to the E. the waves of the mighty Orinoco dispute for the empire of the ocean with contending billows; the lofty mountains of Cumana rise from the bosom of the horizon in stupendous majesty; and on the W. appear the cape, headlands, mountains, hills, vallies and plains of Trinidad, enamelled with eternal

verdure, and presenting a *coup d'œil* of which the old world affords no parallel. The view from the block-house is magnificent, the deep blue waters of the gulf with the white-sailed light canoes in the distance; to the left the splendid capital of Trinidad, in front the mountains of Cumana; and, on the right, the picturesque valley of Diego Martin, extending across the island to the Atlantic, with its carefully cultivated fields and deep foliaged woods. The batteries of Fort George rise in succession from the gulf shores to the barracks, 1,200 feet above the level of the sea.* A range of slightly elevated mountains occupy the N. coast; a group of finely wooded flat or round topped hills the centre; and a chain of fertile evergreen downs the S. coast of the island. The fecundity of the soil, its gigantic and magnificent vegetation, (compared with which the loftiest European trees are like dwarfish shrubs, and our loveliest flowers appear pale and inanimate,) its beautiful rivers, enchanting slopes, forests of palms, groves of citrons, and hedges of spices and perfumes,—its succulent roots, delicious herbs and fruits, abundant and nourishing food on the earth, in the air, and in the water;—in fine its azure skies, deep blue seas, fertile glades, and elastic atmosphere, have each and all combined to crown Trinidad with the appellation of *The Indian Paradise.*

Puerto D'Espana, or *Port of Spain,* the capital of Trinidad, embosomed in an amphitheatre of hills, is one of the finest towns in the West Indies. The numerous buildings are of an imposing appearance, and constructed of massive cut

* This fort commands the pass leading to Diego Martin's valley, and in the event of war, a few judiciously disposed fortifications at the other entrances to the interior of the country would render the island impregnable. The entrenchments are elevated along several ridges and round backed divisions, with a variety of surface: some part of which are sufficiently flat for the erection of military works, and on the best of these, at the elevation of 1000 feet, is the Blockhouse barracks, calculated for 200 men. Fort George is inaccessible from behind, and not commanded by any hill in its neighbourhood, it is admirably fortified by batteries that are disposed, as it were, along the two sides of an acute angled triangle terminating on a point at the Block-house redoubt, each commands the other, according to the situation in which they are placed.

stone. No houses are allowed to be erected of wood, or independent of a prescribed form: the streets are wide, long, (shaded with trees), and laid out in parallel lines from the land to the sea, intersected, but not intercepted by cross streets, thus catching every breeze that blows; and as in most tropical countries, there is a delightful embowered public walk. Among the principal buildings the Protestant church stands conspicuously and beautifully situate, with a large enclosed lawn in front, surrounded on two sides by the best houses of the capital; the interior of the church is superb, and at the same time elegant, its sweeping roof and aisless sides being variegated with the various rich woods of the island, tastefully arranged; there is also a splendid Roman Catholic church, and well situate; and an extensive market-place, with market-house and shambles, all built since the burning of the town in 1808, of handsome cut stone.

The Port of Spain is divided into barrios or districts, each under the superintendance of alcaldes or magistrates and officers, who are responsible for the cleanliness of the streets, for the regulating and order of the markets, and for the due execution of the law in their several divisions; hence the policy and good order established in the capital is admirable. The St. James' barracks for the accommodation of six hundred men are substantially, and I may add, beautifully erected, on a fine plain, about a mile from the capital.

Mountains. The highest range of land (about 3,000 feet) is to the N. near the sea; in the centre of the isle is a less elevated group of mountains, to the S. a series of lovely hills and mounds appear in delightful contrast to the northern shore; and as on the contiguous coast of Cumana, the chain of mountains in the N. of Trinidad runs E. and W. Las Cuevas has a double summit, with a magnificent platform in the centre, from which there is a view of the ocean E. and W.; four delightful vallies, watered by numerous rivulets, add beauty to this charming landscape.

Rivers. On the W. coast the principal navigable streams are the *Caroni, Chaguanas, Barrancones, Couva, Guaracara,*

and Sissaria; the first is navigable from its mouth in the gulph, to its junction with the *Aripo,** (also navigable) a distance of six leagues; the *Guanaba,* like the *Aripo,* flows into the *Caroni,* but has less water; there are many other streams on the W. coast, which being navigable for small trading vessels, afford great facilities for the cultivation of land, and the transport of its produce. The N. and E. coasts are well furnished with rivers and rivulets of pure and crystalline water; the principal on the E. coast are the *Rio Grande, Oropuche, and Nariva,* (called by the Creoles *Mitan,* from its flowing through a grove of cocoa trees). This latter has been sailed up seven and a half leagues, and found navigable for a two hundred and fifty ton ship, at less than a league from its source. *Guatavo,* to windward of the island, is large, but not navigable to any great extent, for more than small boats; further S. is the fine river *Moruga,*† while in every direction limpid brooks run murmuring over pebbly beds to the ocean, through lofty forests and the most picturesque scenery.

HARBOURS AND BAYS. The gulf of Paria, formed by the W. shore of Trinidad, and the opposite coast of Cumana (which is thirty leagues long and fifteen ditto from N. to S.), may be said to form one vast harbour, as ships may anchor all over the gulf in from three to six fathom water, on gravel and mud soundings. The principal ports are, first, the harbour of Port Royal, *Chagaramus,* on the N. W. peninsula of the island, at the entrance of the N. mouth, three leagues W. of Port of Spain, and comprehending a space of about seventy square miles; it is esteemed the best and safest port

* It has been proposed to cut a canal between the Aripo and the Oropuche, which discharges itself on the E. coast of the island, where the navigation is difficult and the anchorage insecure, when the winds are northerly or easterly; thus a safe communication would be established between the two coasts of Trinidad, and be the means of bringing into cultivation a great quantity of fertile land.

† The rivers on the E. coast, especially that of Moruga, have abundance of excellent oysters attached to the stems and branches of the Mangrove bushes, as I found them on the shores of Africa, where our sailors used to say it was the first time they ever saw *such fruit* on trees.

in the island, is capable of receiving the largest ships of war, has from four to forty fathoms soundings of gravel and mud, or ouze, with bold and steep northern shores.

Port of Spain, on the W. coast, which gives its name to the capital, is the next best harbour, and has one of the most extensive bays in the world; the surrounding fortified heights completely command the town, and a fine stone quay, running several hundred yards into the sea, has a strong battery at its extremity. All the W. coast is a series of bays where vessels may anchor in safety at all times. The Careenage, not having more than two to four fathoms, is only fit for small vessels; and Gasper Grande is an islet within the mouths, where the Spanish ships of war were wont to anchor under the safeguard of a battery intended for the protection of the passage. The N. and E. coasts are not equally well furnished with harbours and roadsteads, which is the more to be regretted, as the wind blows for three-fourths of the year from the east and north. The principal ports to the N. are Maqueribe and Las Cuevas, (where fort Abercrombie is situate); to the N. E. are the ports of Rio Grande, Toco, and Cumana; on the E. is Balandra Bay, or Boat Island, where safe anchorage may at all times be found for small vessels; further E. are Guiascreek and Mayaro Bay; the safest port on the E. coast is Guaiguaire, from its being sheltered by a point of land against E. winds, and its entrance to the S. from which the winds are neither frequent nor violent.*

* The *Bocas*, or mouths of the N. entrances of the gulf of Paria, are four—*Boca Grande*, or great channel; *Boca de Navios*, or ships' channel; *Boca Nuevos*, or egg, or umbrella, channel (from the appearance of a remarkable tree, growing upon a rock on the lee side, much resembling an umbrella); and the *Boca de Monas*, or apes' channel. In sailing for the Port of Spain, vessels generally pass through one of these passages into the gulf of Paria; and, as the currents must be particularly attended to, and the navigation is very intricate, the following sailing instructions are subjoined from the *Trinidad Almanac* for 1832:—

INSTRUCTIONS FOR VESSELS COMING TO TRINIDAD.

To run down the North Shore from Point Galere to the Bocas.

After passing Toco Bay, haul in for the land and run down the Coast about one mile dis-

Geology. Trinidad, as viewed from the Gulf of Paria, presents an alluvial country in an active state of formation;

tant from the shore; you will find anchorage in regular soundings (as laid down in Captain Columbine's Chart) all along the coast until you come abreast of the Bocas; when the water becomes very bold and no safe anchorage, except on the North side of the island of Huevos, distance about half a mile. The soundings in and about the Bocas are also correctly laid down in Captain Columbine's Chart, with which every vessel should be provided. Should the current be running to leeward and the wind light, you should anchor and wait a favourable change, to push at once through the Bocas. By not anchoring in such cases, vessels are frequently drifted to leeward altogether, or so far in the offing, that when the current changes and a favourable breeze springs up, they are unable to take advantage of them to get at once through the Bocas, being so far off it takes nearly the whole day to regain their lost ground, and by the time they beat up abreast of the Bocas again, the breeze dies away, the current sits out, and away they drift to leeward as before, and are frequently baffled in this way, backwards and forwards for days together. To this cause is principally to be attributed the frequent occurrence of vessels remaining so long outside without being able to get into the Gulph of Paria. Strangers are apt to keep out too far from the land in running down this coast. The currents are very irregular outside, and about the Bocas, and much stronger during the wet season than at any other time of the year, particularly at the full and change. The winds prevail from the Northward during the months of November, December, January, and February; from the East in March, April, May, and June; calm and variable in July, August, September, and October, when they are generally southerly. The most favourable time for entering the Bocas is about two hours after the tide begins to flow, and for going out, one hour after ebb commences.

Vessels in want of water can be supplied at Toco, Point Sans Souci, Rio Grand, Petit Matelot, Rio Paria, Escuvas, Maraccas Bay, Chute d'Eau, and Macaripe.

DIRECTIONS FOR ENTERING THE BOCAS, AND NAVIGATION OF THE GULF OF PARIA.

BOCA GRANDE.

The current sets very strongly from the S. E. upon the southern and eastern coast of the island, and is particularly rapid in the strait between the southern coast and the Continent, through which it sets into the Gulph of Paria; another current sets along the northern coast, from the eastward in a W. by S. direction, and having a tendency to the southward on the S. E. coast of Cumana or Paria. The effects of these currents is an accumulation of water, which seeks an escape to the northward from the Gulph of Paria, and which must naturally be increased in the rainy seasons by the influx from the surrounding lands.

As the water seeks its escape through the Bocas to the northward, it meets the westerly current from the north-eastward, which so far opposes it as to cause perpetual agitation of the sea. It was from this circumstance that Columbus called these passages Bocas del Dragon, or Dragon's Mouth.

Shipping bound for the Port generally run down to the northward of the Island, with the advantage of wind and current, for the Boca Grande, or Dragon's Mouth, passing to the westward of the Isle of Chacachacareo. This passage is more than five miles broad, with a depth of not less than fifty fathoms. In entering, you must be very cautious not to get too far to leeward, for the current may be so strong as to render it impossible for you to gain the Port. It is therefore recommended that you haul round the western side of Chacachacareo, not however within the distance of a mile, from the south-westernmost land. Having passed the rock laid down on the Chart, make a long board to the S. E., and then, as the wind permits, to the N. E. for the road, wherein you may anchor at pleasure, in 3, 4, or 5 fathoms, in good holding ground.

The above-mentioned Rock, laid down in the Chart to the S. W. of Chacachacareo, is about forty yards in circumference, and is said to have only nine feet water over it on the shoalest

the primitive foundations of the land arranged in a form nearly semilunar, incline as with outstretched arms to receive part at low water. On the morning of the 26th of June, 1809, the ship *Samuel*, Captain Sweeree, of London, drawing 17 feet water, struck upon it, and remained fast for several hours. While this ship was aground, two others passed, one on each side, without touching, although not 25 fathoms distant; the water being very deep all round. The bearings, by compass, from the Ship were, Chacachacareo, southwest Point, E. N. E.; El Plato, or Goose Island, S. W. by W. ½ W.; the south-east Point of Cumana, or Paria, W. by S. The current was setting very strongly from the southward, with light variable winds.

BOCA DE NAVIOS, OR SHIP'S PASSAGE.

The Boca de Navios, or Ships' Passage, is considered as the best channel for Ships sailing outwards. It is about one mile and a half broad, and steep on each side. Here, as in the Boca Grande it is proper to keep the eastern land on board. To Ships which may attempt this passage from the northward, the wind will be favourable until within the head, but flaws from the high land may then be expected.

BOCA HUEVOS.

Boca Huevos has been considered by many the best, shortest, and most convenient passage for ships bound inwards; but experience has proved the contrary. It is known to be a very dangerous passage for large vessels. The high land on the Monos side causes frequent sudden flaws, succeeded by almost instantaneous calms; the current sits strong over upon the windward shore, drawing you at the same time into a small Bay on the north-west end of Monos, full of sunken rocks, where the *Naparima* was lost. The indraft into this Bay is very extraordinary and rapid; so much so, as to have caused its being named by the fishermen "The Devil's Hole." Small vessels acquainted with this place may anchor in front of the Bay, in 10 to 15 fathoms water; foul bottom; but large class of vessels have not sufficient room to swim clear of the rocks. Vessels attempting this channel should be careful to keep the lee shore aboard, as less dangerous and more likely to carry a breeze through. This passage should never be attempted with a scant wind.

BOCA MONOS, OR APES' PASSAGE.

This Boca is next to Trinidad; the passage is narrow and dangerous in several places, particularly at the outer entrance, where there is a sunken rock extending from the South side of the small Island in this channel, towards the Island of Monos, upon which are breakers, yet there is ground all the way through, in which vessels may anchor in 25 to 30 fathoms; the currents are here strong and irregular, and the wind generally scant, coming in flaws down the vallies. This passage is recommended for vessels under 50 tons.

Ship Calypso, *Wednesday 13th December*, 1826.

'Approached the Grand Bocas at 6 o'clock, P. M. with a fair wind, but on entering at eight the breeze died away, and the ship drifted back with the current. The calm continued till nine next morning, when a breeze sprung up which enabled her to stand in till ten when it again became calm, but the ship was carried through by the current. At 11 o'clock Captain M'Arthur discovered on the starboard side a Coral Rock, which on sounding proved to have 15 feet water over it. He then lowered the jolly boat and found the Rock to be nearly half a mile in circumference, having only nine feet water over it on the shoalest part. Captain M'Arthur with a view that measures may be taken to have a permanent mark placed over the Rock, has left a buoy on the spot.* It bore E. by N. per compass from the innermost point of the Bocas.

The following further directions will be found deserving of attention; and I subjoin them because I wish the *History of the British Colonies* to be a useful work to every captain of a ship or navigator. Mr. Norrie says that if the navigator—

Should enter by the *Boca Grande*, it will be highly requisite that he should remember and

* This buoy has since, however, been washed away.

into their bosoms the greater portion of the alluvies from the mouths of the mighty Orinoco; the currents, deeply charged

guard against the effect of the current described (p. 221) for otherwise he will find himself driven too far to leeward, and have great difficulty in beating up for the port; it will, therefore, be advisable, in taking this passage, to haul immediately round the *Island Chacachacarree*, giving its S. W. part a berth of a good mile, and having passed the *Diamond Rock*, make a long board to the S. eastward, then, should the wind permit, steer northeasterly for the road. Or in entering by either of the *Bocas*, so soon as you have passed through, and are to the southward of them, you should haul by the wind on the larboard tack, both to get away from the *Bocas*, and to near the coast of *Trinidad*; follow this track while the flood tide lasts, and take the starboard tack so soon as the ebb begins; by which means you will either fetch the anchorage, or approach very near to it.

Some persons consider it preferable, after they have entered the *Gulf*, to work tack and tack, especially should the larboard tack be not favourable, but it should be remembered, that the currents always run strongest opposite and near to the straits; therefore beginning to tack too much within the vicinity of the *Bocas*, the ebb tide will endanger their being forced out again, or to prevent that, they will be compelled to anchor; and should neither of these events take place, they will meet the ebb, which will in all probability hinder their reaching *Port Spain*. On the contrary, by prolonging their track well into the *Gulf*, even to the parellel of *Mount Naparima*, if necessary, they there will find the ebb tide most advantageous for the starboard tack, so that they may either proportion their course, so as to reach the anchorage, or may gain it by making a short tack. Whenever it happens to be a calm, or the wind so light that you are unable to gain any thing, then come to with your hedge, and that will be sufficient to hold you against the strength of the tide. You should avoid using your large anchors, if possible, because they sink so deep, you will have difficulty to purchasing them again.

Or, having safely cleared the *Bocas*, and got well within the *Gulf of Paria*, you will perceive *St. David's Tower*, standing above the *Town of Spain*, come open to the southward of the *Island of Gaspar Grande*; this will be visible 4 or 5 leagues; it is built of white stone, and stands in the interior of the fortifications upon *Abercromby's Heights*; in sailing up, as you advance, with the tower E. by N. you will see the forts on *Gaspar Grande* and *Point Gorda*, which protect the careenage and the anchorage in *Chaguaramus Harbour*, after which the shipping off the town will become visible. In *Puerto d'Espagne* you may anchor to the S. westward of the town, in 5 or 4 fathoms water, agreeable to the size of your vessel, and moor with your bowers N. W. and S. E., having a stream cable and anchor out astern. It is high water at *Puerto d'Espagne* at half-past four, full and change, and spring tides rise 6 and 7 feet.

Should a vessel happen to drive from her anchors, she will go on soft ground, and receive no damage; the best place to run aground is in the N. W. part of the bay. The town has a stone jetty, and is defended by batteries: a white half-moon battery forms a good mark for the bay, and is visible a long way off; large ships should bring this battery to bear N. N. E.

All the western coast of *Trinidad* is low, except the *Mount Naparima*, which forms a conspicuous object, being 669 feet above the level of the sea; this appears round, and may be seen in clear weather full 10 leagues off. The adjacent shores of the continent to the westward are low, swampy, and full of rivulets; the most considerable river is that of *Guaripocho*, which is navigable for the largest schooners, and by which the commerce of the interior of *Cumana* is principally carried on.

There are many places on the western coast of *Trinidad* where you may obtain fresh water; and from *Point Icaque*, or *Ycacos*, to *Point Brea*, or *Pitch Point*, the flood tide sets to the southward and westward, and the ebb to the northward and eastward. From *Point Brea*, to *Puerto d'Espagne* it follows the direction of the land, with very little difference, the flood setting south, and the ebb north.

The best anchorages, on the northern shores of *Trinidad*, are in the bays of *Toco*, *Rio*

with this alluvial soil, drive along the cliffy sides of the northern ridge and southern shores, (from which they borrow in

Grande, Punta de Chuparas, Las Cuevas, Maracas, and to the leeward of *Maraboral,* in which water may be obtained, there being a beach, which renders the acquisition easy. All along the whole coast, and for the distance of three leagues outside, the stream runs north-eastward, or rather east, with the ebb tide, and S. W. with the flood, but beyond those limits its general tendency is S. W.; and the same direction prevails between *Trinidad* and *Tobago,* only the ebb is less rapid than the flood.

Although from the parallel of the middle of *Tobago,* the island of *Tobago* may easily be distinguished in clear weather, yet you will not be able to see *Point Galera* at the distance of more than three leagues, on account of its being so much lower than the coast to the westward, and its projecting out from the main land; but in coming from the eastward the mountains at the back of the *Point* will be visible 11 or 12 leagues. All the eastern coast, southward from *Salibia* to *Point Galiote,* is much lower, except near *Point Manzinilla,* whence four mountains rise to the W. S. W., which may be seen 8 or 9 leagues off; this is the beginning of the middle ridge of hills, and here named the *Barrancas of Manzinilla;* here also is the entrance to the *River Le Branche,* from whence the canal is intended to be made to join the *River Caroni.*

To the southward is *Guataro Point,* which may readily be known by its stretching out from the coast to seaward, and by the height of the tongue that forms it; from hence there are many plantations of cocoa, cotton, coffee, and sugar; a little northward of the *Point* is a landing-place, and here the *River Guataro,* or *Ortoire* empties itself into the sea, after having sent some branches to the northward, which are navigated by canoes and small craft. *Point Galiote* may be seen at the distance of six or seven leagues; here the hills begin to rise, and stretch along the whole southern coast, rising to 760 feet above the level of the sea; the highest of these is situated a little to the westward of the *Punta de Caza Cruz;* thence they continue so far as *Point Herin;* and from *Point Herin* to *Point Icaque,* or *Ycacos,* they diminish in size, until the last point becomes a low beach.

It is observable, that on all the eastern coast there is no good watering place; the large rivers discharge themselves into the bays of *Matura* and *Cocos,* called also *Manzanilla* and *Guataro,* the bars of which are too shallow to allow even a canoe to pass them. There are several places of temporary anchorages, as shewn on the chart, but they are none of them safe, being too much exposed to the eastward. The current here sets north, but with much less force during the ebb than the flood; this is also accompanied by a heavy swell of the sea, especially during a gale of wind, which renders a near approach to the shore extremely dangerous.

On the southern coast you cannot obtain fresh water, except a little to the westward of the *Point of Casa Cruz;* here a torrent from the southern mountains precipitates itself into a hole or well near the shore; but its attainment is always attended with trouble and difficulty. The current along the coast is always westerly, and commonly at the rate of two and two and a half miles an hour.

To enter the Gulf of Paria by the Southern Channel, which is generally preferred during the rainy season, or from *July* to *December,* the mariner should direct his course for *Point Galiote,* which is situate in latitude 10.9.30. N., and will easily be recognized. Having made and rounded this point, you may run along to the westward, keeping about two miles off the land, where you will find from 8 to 12 fathoms water, free from every danger, the bottom being generally sand and gravel. Having arrived to the vicinity of *Point Herin,* you will experience a change in the colour of the sea, but this is occasioned solely by the current, and there is no impediment whatever; proceeding onward you will pass *Point Quemada,* or *Burnt Point;* here you may approach within half a mile of the shore without fear, for there is no danger, and take whatever channel you find most convenient.

THE FIRST CHANNEL is formed by and between *Point Ycacos* and a shoal of 9 feet water, which lies to the westward of the point, at the distance of about half a mile from the land; this shoal is two cables' length from east to west, and has a rocky bottom; but the channel

their course), to deposit their lading at the bottom of the gulf where the metropolis, at the base of its beautiful moun-

between it and the point has a depth of 8 and 10 fathoms, and *Point Ycacos* is so bold, that at half a cables' distance from it, there is 8 and 9 fathoms water. The current here runs to the S. W. with the flood, at the rate of 2½ miles an hour, and with the ebb it sets N. W. with the velocity of 3 and 3½ miles an hour.

To enter by this channel, you have only to round *Point Ycacos*, at less distance than a cable's length, luffing up as you double it, until you are close hauled; steer on to the northward, weathering at a proper distance the *Points Corral* and *Gallo*. This channel is not dangerous by day or by night, especially with an ebb tide, the current of which will always assist you in passing the shoal to leeward; besides, you can anchor, if necessary, and never run the least danger of getting on shore, while you will leave the shoal at least 3 cables' length from your vessel.

THE SECOND CHANNEL is formed by the above rocky shoal, and another of gravel and rocks to the N. Westward of it, and on which there are four fathoms water. This shoal lies from *Point Gallo* W. S. W. ½ W. distant 3 miles, and from *Point Ycacos* W. N. W. ½ W. distant two miles, its greatest extent being three-quarters of a mile N. W. and S. E.; this passage is a mile wide, and the currents take the same direction as in the first channel.

To enter by the second channel, it will be advisable, after you have made *Point Quemada*, and run from thence along the coast about a quarter of a mile, to steer towards the *Soldado*, or *Soldiers' Island*; and keep on the same course until the whole of *Point Gallo* is open of *Corral Point*, when you should luff up; but not higher to the N. N. E., until you get east and west with *Point Corral*, when you may haul close to the wind in order to near *Trinidad*.

THE THIRD CHANNEL is formed by and between the last mentioned shoal and the *Soldado Island*, with its reefs and shoals to the S. Eastward; this channel is nearly two miles in extent, from east to west; two and a half cables' length from the eastern part of the *Soldado's* reefs, you will have 7 fathoms water; in the middle of the passage are 9 fathoms, and near the shoal 6 fathoms. To enter by this third channel, you should first steer for the island, as directed, to the second channel, and continue that course until *Point Gallo* bears N. by E. ½ E.; when luff up north, until the south front of *Point Ycacos* comes E. S. E. ½ E., and *Point Gallo* E. by N.; then haul up to fetch the coast of the island. With the flood tide, the stream sets W. by S., at the rate of 3 and 3½ miles an hour, and with the ebb N. W. and W. N. W. near *Soldado*, and in mid-channel, with the velocity of 4 and 4½ miles an hour. The above passages are commonly denominated the *Serpent's Mouths*.

THE FOURTH, OR SOLDIER'S CHANNEL, is formed by the *Soldado*, or *Soldier's Island*, and the coast of *Colombia* or *Land of Orinoco*; this is about 4 miles in extent, and the current within it, in mid-channel and near the *Soldado*, always runs at the rate of 4½ and 5 miles an hour; but the stream slackens its velocity to one mile and a half, as it approaches the opposite shore, which is low, and shallows to a considerable distance.

To enter by the fourth channel, you should steer so as pass two miles to the southward of the *Soldado*; and when you bring that islet N. E. bear up north, and run afterwards, luffing up successfully, by little and little, until you haul by the wind to gain the coast of *Trinidad*; but you should be very careful, in passing to the southward of the *Soldado*, not to go nearer than the above-mentioned distance, lest the current, which sets strongly to the N. Westward, should entangle you with the rocky reefs, with which the island is encumbered.

From a consideration of what has been said, it will readily be seen, that at whatever time you may enter the *Southern Bocas*, or *Soldier's* and *Serpent's Channels*, even if by night, the first channel is the most advantageous; not only because it lies to the windward of all the others, but because, by luffing, especially with ebb tides, you will pass every danger; indeed, there will be no danger whatever, if you keep an anchor ready to let go, in the event of its suddenly falling quite calm; or any other accident should happen calculated to drift the vessel towards the shoals; and by night no other *Boca* can be taken so readily as this, because you will have to pass at less distance than a cables' length from the point; this will

tain stands. The tides, (which there rise higher by several feet than in any other part of the West Indies,) flow muddy

render the obscurity of the night of little importance, as you will be able to discern your passage, and the shore at so short a distance from you.

Should, however, circumstances occur, from calms or otherwise, to hinder you taking your passage into the *Gulf*, then you can anchor in *Herin Bay*, or any where on the south side of the *Island of Trinidad*, until day-light; but by no means should you lie off and on the land, for the current, which always runs strongly in, will insensibly drift you towards the *Soldado*, and you will find the utmost difficulty in maintaining your ground at any given point.

Having passed either of the above channels, you will find yourself within the *Gulf of Paria*, and you shape your course, so as to gain the western coast of the island, which you may sail along at the distance of 2½ or 3 miles, so far as *Brea Point*, and from this *Puerto d'Espagne* is distant 8 leagues, so that by steering N. N. E., you will soon see the town; and in case you should not be able to steer that course, you must tack, and beat up, never standing nearer to the shore than three miles, for the water along the coast becomes shallow; but, if you choose to prolong your tacks into the *Bay of Naparima*, then you must tack 4 miles from the coast, giving a wide berth to two shoals that are within it; the one W. ¼ S. from the mount, distant 2½ miles; the other W. S. W. ¼ W. from it, distant 4 miles.

Vessels never attempt sailing out of the *Gulf* by the *Saldado, or Southern Channel*, because of the current, which would render every attempt impracticable.*

REGULATIONS FOR THE HARBOUR OF PUERTO D'ESPAGNE, OR PORT OF SPAIN.

1. No boats to go on board any vessel before the Harbour-master has visited; and no boat to go on board after the vessel has been cleared by the Harbour-master, except the boats of His Majesty's vessels, of the Custom-house, or such as have leave from the Harbour-master, under a penalty of one hundred dollars.

2. All vessels entering by day, must show their colours, and by night a light; and anchor where the Harbour-master shall point out; the Master to report at the Government-house immediately on landing. If intending to remain more than 48 hours, to moor from the bows one anchor to the N. Eastward; to rig in their jib, outer jib, and main booms close, and keep their boats and lighters alongside, under the penalty of one dollar per day, for each day they shall remain without being so moored, with booms in; and be accountable for all damage any vessel or boat may sustain by their neglect.

3. Masters of vessels must furnish the Harbour-master with a *written account* of all passengers on board, and also a *written account* of all the crew, specifying their situations: and on the departure of the vessel, the Master must satisfactorily account for any alterations, otherwise the vessel will be detained until security be given.

4. No foreigners, coloured persons, or slaves, can be landed, until written permission has been obtained from the Government-house, nor any other passenger until reported to the Harbour-master; under the penalty of one hundred dollars.

5. No stones, sand, or dirt, to be thrown overboard in the harbour; but landed at the place which the Harbour-master shall point out. No tar or pitch to be boiled on board; penalty, in each case, one hundred dollars.

6. None of the crew can be discharged here, without first obtaining leave from the Governor; under penalty of one hundred dollars. Sailors deserting, must be reported to the Harbour-master, and to the Chief of Police, within 24 hours after desertion, otherwise they will be considered as discharged without leave.

7. Masters of vessels must give 24 hours *written notice* to the Government Secretary,

* The Gulf of Paria is so abundant in fish, as to be capable of amply supplying the greater part of the West India Islands.

and foul, and ebb with clear waters, which may be seen at some distance from the shore; each extent of new formation being marked by muddy banks of Mangrove bushes; in this way Port of Spain—like, as Dr. Ferguson says, (of the ancient Ostia, that was built upon the sea,) may become in time an inland city, the metropolis of many other towns built on the fertile and flourishing country.*

The island (as also Tobago) is evidently a section of the opposite continent, formed either by a volcanic eruption or oceanic irruption—the same strata of earth, the same rocks, fossils, &c. are common to both. The nucleus of the mountains is a very dense argillaceous schistus, becoming laminated and friable when exposed to the atmosphere, and changing to

before their departure, of the port to which they are bound; a neglect of this will subject them to 24 hours detention, after being cleared out.

8. No foreign vessel can lay off and on, without permission from the Governor; British vessels can only lay off and on till 5 o'clock of the day they arrive; provided they have no passenger. Any vessel which has passengers on board, or intend to take off passengers, must come to an anchor.

9. All sailors found on shore, without permission from their Captain, will be sent to gaol.

10. Masters of vessels who hire slaves, without a *written permission* from their Masters, or Owners, subject themselves to all damages, and a fine of sixty dollars.

11. All sealed letters must be delivered to the Harbour-master.

12. Masters of vessels are warned not to allow any of their men to enter the town, above the junction of the wharf and Marine-square, without permission from the Harbour-master, under the penalty of fifty dollars for each offence.

13. All persons arriving in this colony, are to deliver their names to the Harbour-master, on his visit to the ship, declaring their number of servants, if free or slaves; from that officer they will, except in special cases, receive permission to land, when they must report to the Government-house; where, if *English*, they will show their passports, which will be indorsed by the Secretary; if foreigners they must obtain the Governor's license to reside in this Colony.

14. All persons, *British* or foreigners, must apply to the Custom-house for permission to land their slaves.

15. All persons importing slaves, as domestics or by bond, must lodge the Custom-house certificate of their lawful importation, within twenty-one days, with the Registrar of Slaves.

SEAMEN. It is prohibited, even for temporary purposes, to employ, harbour, conceal, or afford a residence, under any pretence, to any seaman, or person attached to any vessel, unless they be furnished with a permission to remain on shore by the Harbour-master, under penalty of £100., or suffer three months imprisonment.

* It has been observed, that the land encroaching on the sea on the coast S. W. of Trinidad increases the territorial extent of the island; and, at some distant day, the Gulf of Paria will be a mere channel for the conveyance of the waters of the Orinoco and Guarapiche to the ocean.

micaceous schistus in the inferior layers and near the beds of rivers; in the interstices of which latter, particularly to the northward, are found great quantities of sulphureous pyrites in cubic chrystals. There is no granite on the island (while the Caribbean chain of mountains are principally composed of that substance); but blocks of milky quartz, of different sizes, are found in every valley, beneath which there is frequently to be found a light layer of sulphate of lime; on the precipitous sides of the mountains, washed by the torrents, may be seen layers of a coarse argile, mixed with ferruginous sand. Thus the absence of calcareous masses in Trinidad, Tobago, and Cumana offers a strong geological contrast to the Antilles, or Caribbean Mountains. Gypsum and limestone are rare in Trinidad. One quarry of calcareous carbonate, situate at the foot of a hill near the Port of Spain, is mixed with veins of silex and heterogeneous substances. Considerable quantities of pulverating feldspar are found on the rising ground, washed by the rains, near the Guapo mouth and on its left banks. The micaceous schistus has sometimes a transition into talcous schistus; thus giving an unctuous appearance to the soil. Near the coast are found rocks of a bluish calcareous nature, veined with white calcareous carbonate, chrystalized, rather hard, and resting on coagulated clay, with pebbles of primitive rocks. The magnetic needle indicates the presence of iron in many rocks; but volcanic convulsions have produced different effects from similar eruptions in Europe: thus gypsum is found abounding in sulphur and pyrites, mingled with granite. No vestiges of organic bodies have been discovered; maritime and land shells (many of unknown and extinct species) are found in the great alluvial plains; and, although madrepore are drifted on the coast, no coral banks exist. On the surface of the soil of the vallies where rivers run, rounded pebbles are observed; but in the plains they disappear: this is particularly the case on the E. and very rare on the W. coast. There are several extensive vallies and plains of a deep and fertile

argillaceous vegetative earth, without a rock or even pebble to be seen.

Volcanoes. There are several craters in Trinidad. S. of Cape Dela Brea is a submarine volcano, which occasionally boils up, and discharges a quantity of petreolum; in the E. part of the island and Bay of Mayaro is another, which, in March and June, gives several detonations resembling thunder,—these are succeeded by flames and smoke, and, some minutes after, pieces of bitumen, as black and brilliant as jet, are thrown on shore. Near the forests of point Icacos, on the summit of a hill of argillaceous clay, M. Levyasse found a great number of little mounds, about two feet high, whose truncated and open-coned tops exhaled a gas smelling like sulphurated hydrogen; one cone, of six feet high, on the most elevated part of the hill, continually discharged whitish matter, of an aluminous taste; a sound was heard, indicating a fluid in a continual state of agitation, and globules of an elastic gas evaporated continually; the scum at the top was cold; four poles, measuring sixty feet, did not touch bottom, and disappeared on being let go. There is neither stone nor sand within the circumference of a league of the cone; but handsome rounded pebbles were found round the hill, together with small calcareous stones, encrusted with sulphur of a prismatic form. Contiguous to this crater, and encompassed by a marsh of mangroves, which communicate with the sea, is another hillock, with a circular shallow cavity full of a boiling liquid like alum; a dull subterraneous sound was heard, the earth was found to tremble under the feet of the explorers, and two poles pushed into the crater disappeared in an instant; detonations like distant cannon are heard every year in the month of March. It is remarkable that earthquakes, felt violently in the Antilles in 1797, were not perceived at Trinidad or in Cumana, and when the latter province was shortly after desolated by terrible earthquakes, the shocks were slightly felt in Trinidad, but not at all in the Antilles.

Mud Volcanoes. Forty miles S. of the Pitch Lake (vide *Mineral Kingdom*), are several mud volcanoes, in a plain not

more than four feet above the general surface; the largest is about one hundred and fifty feet in diameter, and has boiling mud constantly bubbling, but never overflowing, remaining constantly within the surface of the crater. When the old craters cease to act, new ones invariably appear in the vicinity; thus resembling the mud volcanoes witnessed by Humboldt. Some of the mud volcanoes throw out salt water, heavily loaded with argillaceous earth:—during the *hottest* months of the dry season, *cold* mud is thrown to the height of thirty feet, and the volcano is unapproachable to within fifty paces. The following detailed description of this extraordinary phenomenon is worthy of perusal.*

'They are situated near Point Icaque, the southern extremity of the island, on an alluvial tongue of land, that has been appended to the primitive rocks, where, no doubt, the land originally terminated. This appendage is several miles in length, and points directly into one of the mouths of the Orinoco, on the main land, about twelve or fifteen miles off.

'We landed nearly opposite to where we were told we should find the mud volcanoes—and, after making our way about five miles across the sandy isthmus, we came upon two plantations, very pleasantly situated, amidst a group of remarkably round little hills, each from eighty to 100 feet in height. Our path, on leaving these, led us through some very thick wood of tall trees, till we found ourselves again upon a pretty steep regular ascent, which had nothing remarkable in it except the diminishing height of the trees as we went up. Only the tops of those trees, which were of the kind that usually grow near lagoons and salt marshes, at last appeared above the ground, as we opened a perfectly uniform round bare platform of several acres, with different chimnies in the shape of truncated cones, the highest of them not exceeding three feet, some of which were throwing out, with a strong bubbling noise, salt water, about as salt as that of the Gulph

* I am indebted to the scientific observation of Dr. William Fergusson for this account, an officer whose valuable communications to the Army Medical Department evince a very high range of talent.

of Paria, loaded, as much as it could be to preserve its fluidity, with argillaceous earth. In some of the chimneys this went on slowly or not at all—in others it might be called a pretty active cold ebullition. The surface of the platform round the chimneys was perfectly firm—and one of our party picked up a white sea shell of the turbinated kind, in the act of being thrown out along with the mud.

'We afterwards procured various pyritic fragments that had been picked up in a similar manner—but the inhabitants of the quarter assured us that the ebullition, even during its greatest activity, was quite cold. The smooth circular platform was bounded by a perfectly regular parapet of clay, about three feet in height, propped up as it were by the tops of the trees, that like shrubs were shooting out of the ground immediately behind it. This appearance was most likely to be referred to the buried trees around having had time to shoot out in the interval between the two last great eruptions, which take place only during the hottest months of the dry seasons, and then the noise is described to be like the loudest cannon; the mud being thrown up to the height of at least thirty feet in the air, and the theatre of the eruption being unapproachable within fifty paces.

'Close to the first volcano, but in a much more low and sunk situation, is another of precisely the same appearance and character, with only a narrow ravine between the two.

'Such an extraordinary phenomenon induced us to examine the neighbouring mounts of the cleared country, close to which stands the residence of Monsieur Chancelier, a French planter —and we found them all (bating only the eruption) to possess the same form and composition, in all respects, as those we had just quitted. The platform and parapet were easily distinguishable, the chimnies only were gone; but just small pits were left in their places, filled with mud, from which air bubbles rose, even under our own observation; and our conductor, the intelligent manager of the estate, told us that when these rose in salt water, a fresh eruption was to be apprehended. He pointed out the former site of his master's

residence, half up the mount, which had been destroyed by one of these eruptions, after a period of cessation so long that no record remained of the one that had preceded it; and he assured us that, during the period he had lived there, (fourteen years) the largest mount now in activity had gained a very considerable increase of height.

The magnificent isolated mountain of Tamanace, in the centre of the great eastern marsh, unconnected with any chain of hills, and at an immense distance on every side from what may be called *terra firma*, may be supposed, till examined, to have arisen from the plain through the means of some similar elaboratory in the works of nature.'

Mineral Kingdoms. The precious metals have not been found in Trinidad, but the magnet discovers iron in the greater part of its rocks and pebbles; a very brilliant white metal, (specific gravity ten,) more ductile and malleable than silver has been found, and M. Vauqueline thought it either a new metal, or composed of several others; crystals of sulphate of copper have been found encrusted with alum among flints, as also arsenic with sulphurated barytes for a matrix; schistus plumbago has been discovered, and near it a mine of coal, about five miles from the sea-shore; but the most remarkable mineral phenomenon is the *Asphaltum*, or *Pitch Lake*, situate on the leeward side of the island, on a small peninsula, jutting into the sea about two miles, (opposite the Parian Mountains on the Continent,) and elevated 80 feet above the level of the ocean.

The lake is bounded on the N. W. by the sea, on the S. by a rocky eminence, and on the E. by the usual argillaceous soil of the country; it is nearly circular, and better than half a league in length, and the same in breadth,* occu-

* The headland on which it is situate, when seen from the sea, resembles a dark scoriaceous mass; but, when more closely examined, it is found to consist of bituminous scoriæ, vitrified sand, and earth, all cemented together. In some places beds of cinders are found; and a strong sulphureous smell pervades the ground to the distance of eight or ten miles from the lake, and is felt on approaching the shore.

pying the highest part of the point of land which shelves into the sea, from which it is separated by a margin of wood; the variety and extraordinary mobility of this phenomenon is very remarkable, groups of beautiful shrubs and flowers, tufts of wild pine apples and aloes, swarms of magnificent butterflies and brilliant humming birds enliven a scene, which would be an earthly representation of Tartarus without them. With regard to *mobility*, where a small islet has been seen on an evening, a gulf is found on the following morning, and, on another part of the lake, a pitch islet has sprung up to be in its turn adorned with the most luxuriant vegetation, and then again engulphed!*

The usual consistence and appearance of the *asphaltum*, (except in hot weather, when it is actually liquid an inch deep,) is that of pit coal, but of a greyish colour, melting like sealing wax; ductile by a gentle heat, and, when mixed with grease, oil, or common pitch, acquiring fluidity, and well adapted for preserving the bottoms of ships against the destructive effects of the worm termed the *teredo navalis*. Sometimes the Asphaltum is found jet black and hard, breaking into a dull conchoidal fracture, but, in general, it may be readily cut, when its interior appears oily and vesicular.

Deep crevices or funnels, inclining to a conic form, and sometimes six feet deep, are found in various parts of the *asphaltum*, (pitch), filled with excellent limpid running water, and often containing a great quantity of mullet and small fish.† The bottoms of some of these canals are so liquid that marked poles thrust in disappear, and have been found a few days after on the sea-shore!

Pieces, of what was once wood, are found completely changed into bitumen; and the trunk of a large tree, on being sawn, was entirely impregnated with petreolum; where

* Near Cape La Brea, to the S. W. (the place where this lake is) Capt. Mallet observed a gulf or vortex, which, in stormy weather, gushes out, raising the water five or six feet, and covering the surface, for a considerable space with the bituminous substance. A similar gulf is said to be on the E. coast, at the bay of Mayaro.

† Alligators are said to have been seen in these extraordinary chasms.

the petreolum mixes with the earth it tends greatly to fertilize it, and the finest fruits in the colony come from districts bordering on this singular lake; the pine apples, in particular, being less fibrous, larger, more aromatic, and of a deeper golden colour than are to be had any where else.

A very intelligent and enterprising traveller, (to whom the author is indebted for many valuable observations,) Captain Sir J. E. Alexander, furnishes the following graphic account of his observations on this extraordinary phenomenon.

'The western shore of the island, for about twenty miles, is quite flat, and richly wooded; and though only one or two houses are perceptible from the sea, the interior is well cultivated, and several small rivers, which empty themselves into the Gulf of Paria, afford great facility for the transport of sugar to ships that anchor off their embouchures. As Naparema is approached, and the singular mountain, (at the foot of which San Fernandez is situated,) is plainly distinguished, the shore assumes a more smiling aspect; here, one sees a noble forest, there, a sheet of bright green, points out a cane field. Cocoa nuts and palm trees are sprinkled over the landscape, and now and then a well built house, close to the water's edge, appears, with a verdant lawn extending from it to the sea, and the ground sometimes broken into sinuosities, and then slightly undulating. The beauty of this part of Trinidad is very great, though, from some undrained swamps, poisonous malaria exhales. At Point La Brea are seen masses of pitch, which look like black rocks among the foliage. At the small hamlet of La Braye, a considerable extent of coast is covered with pitch, which runs a long way out to sea, and forms a bank under water. The pitch lake is situated on the side of a hill, eighty feet above the level of the sea, from which it is distant three quarters of a mile; a gradual ascent leads to it, which is covered with pitch in a hard state, and trees and vegetation flourish upon it. The road leading to the lake runs through a wood, and, on emerging from it, the spectator stands on the borders of what at the first glance appears to be a lake, containing many wooded islets, but which, on a second examination, proves to

be a sheet of asphaltum, intersected throughout by crevices three or four feet deep and full of water. The pitch at the sides of the lake is perfectly hard and cold, but as one walks towards the middle with the shoes off in order to wade through the water, the heat gradually increases, the pitch becomes softer and softer, until at last it is seen boiling up in a liquid state, and the soles of the feet become so heated that it is necessary to dance up and down in the most ridiculous manner. The air is then strongly impregnated with bitumen and sulphur, and the impression of the feet is left upon the face of the pitch. During the rainy season it is possible to walk over the whole lake nearly, but in the hot season a great part is not to be approached. Although several attempts have been made to ascertain the depth of the pitch, no bottom has ever been found. The lake is about a mile and half in circumference; and not the least extraordinary circumstance is, that it should contain eight or ten small islands, on which trees are growing close to the boiling pitch. In standing still on the lake near the centre the surface gradually sinks, forming a sort of bowl as it were, and when the shoulders become level with the lake it is high time to get out. Some time ago a ship of war landed casks to fill with the pitch, for the purpose of transporting it to England; the casks were rolled on the lake, and the hands commenced filling, but a piratical craft appearing in the offing, the frigate, with all hands, went in chase; on returning to the lake all the casks had sunk and disappeared.* There is a metallic substance thrown up by the pitch fountains, much

* I am indebted to Major-General Sir Lewis Grant, late Governor of Trinidad, for the following curious fact:—'The pitch of the lake has been adopted for the improvement of the roads, particularly in the fertile district of Naparima, where it was brought for the purpose from La Brea. In the wet season the roads at Naparima are almost impassable in those parts where there has been no application of the pitch; but where the pitch has been applied, which is the case for several miles in North Naparima, there is a hard surface formed, which makes transport comparatively easy, both from the support afforded and from the little friction of the hardened pitch.—L. G.' [R. Montgomery Martin.]

resembling copper ore. Science is at a loss to account for this extraordinary phenomenon, for the lake does not seem to occupy the mouth of an exhausted crater, neither is the hill on which it is situated of volcanic origin, for its basis is clay. The flow of pitch from the lake has been immense, the whole country round, except near the Bay of Grappo, which is protected by a hill, being covered with it, and it seems singular that no eruption has taken place within the memory of man, although the principle of motion still exists in the centre of the lake. The appearance of the pitch which had hardened is as if the whole surface had boiled up in large bubbles, and then suddenly cooled; but where the asphaltum is still liquid, the surface is perfectly smooth. Many experiments have been made to ascertain whether the pitch could be applied to any useful purpose. Admiral Cochrane sent two ship loads of it to England, but, after a variety of experiments, it was found necessary, in order to render it fit for use, to mix such a quantity of oil with it that the expense of oil alone exceeded the price of pitch in England. Another attempt was made by a company, styled the Pitch Company, who sent out an agent from England, but finding Admiral Cochrane had failed, and feeling convinced any further attempt would be useless, he let the matter drop.

Climate. The dry and rainy seasons into which the tropical year is distinguished is more marked in Trinidad than in the Antilles. The dry season commences with the month of December, and ends with that of May, the E. N. E. and N. winds then become less cool; the heat increases and is at its height by the end of June, storms commence and augment in frequency and violence during August and September, and in October they occur almost daily, accompanied by torrents of rain; there is seldom any fall of rain during the night, but a heavy shower without wind usually precedes sun-rise by half an hour during the season. Hurricanes are unknown in Trinidad or Tobago.

The hygrometer varies much in different seasons; during the rainy season it is usually between 85 and 90,—in the

spring between 36 and 38 in the day, and about 50 at night; on an average there falls about sixty-two inches of water during the winter, and about ten inches (including the heavy dews, which may be estimated at six inches) during the spring. The October rains are very gentle; in November they are less frequent and more slight; and from the end of December to the beginning of June of some years, there does not fall a drop of rain during the day: as the island has become cleared, the quantity of rain falling has diminished.

During even the hot and stormy season the thermometer rarely stands at Port of Spain before sun-rise so high as 74 (and in the country occasionally as low as 68;*) from sun-rise to sun-set 84 to 86, falling in the evening to 82 or 80; in August and September, when the air is saturated with moisture, the mercury rises sometimes to 90—rarely above that height. When during the winter there is wind with the rain the mornings are less hot, as are also the evenings, when the rain has been preceded by thunder during the day; but the temperature of the whole island varies with the elevation above the sea and the aspect of the place, especially in spring, when the thermometer descends to 60, and sometimes to 50, in places of moderate elevation; on the whole it is less moist than Guyana, and not so dry as Cumana, and being an island, the winds are more constant, and the atmosphere therefore more frequently renovated; the vallies of Santa Anna, of Maraval, Diego Martin, Aricagua, and the heights of St. Joseph, to the N. W., as also the vallies on the N. coast, enjoy a mild temperature, and their inhabitants breathe during nearly the whole year a fresh, pure, and very elastic air, by reason of the simultaneous action of the evaporation of rains, dews and winds, on the well-known eastern principle, by which liquids are cooled, and even ice formed, by solar evaporation or exposure to a current of air. The beneficial and abundant dews (arising from the numerous rivers of the island and surrounding ocean) cool and invigorate the

* From the coolness of the night, it is the ordinary custom to have a blanket folded up at the foot of the bed to draw up when necessary, during a residence in the country or in the high lands.

atmosphere, and give a vigorous luxuriance to the vegetation of an isle, which, were it otherwise, would be nearly barren. The following table affords a Meteorological Register of Port of Spain:—

MONTHS.	THERM.	WINDS.	OBSERVATIONS.
January ..	81 to 72	E. E.N.E. and E.S.E.	Cloudy and rainy.
February..	83 - 70	E. and E.N.E.	Ditto, nights dewy.
March....	84 - 71	Ditto	Fine, dry and pleasant.
April	84 - 73	E.N.E.	Invigorating breezes.
May.....	81 - 74	S.E. E.N.E.	Strong ditto, some thunder.
June	82 - 74	E.S.E. and E.N.E.	Close and rainy, ditto.
July.....	84 - 74	E.N.E.	Stormy, lightning, rainy.
August ..	85 - 74	E.S.E.	Squally, ditto.
September	86 - 72	E.S.E.	Heavy rains, thund. & lightn.
October ..	84 - 73	E.S.E.	Strong breezes.
November	85 - 73	E. and E.N.E.	Fine, hot occasionally.
December	82 - 71	E. and E.N.E.	Cool, sometimes chilly.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM. The Vegetation of Trinidad is of the same splendid character as that found on the main land. Botanists specify on the Island aspen rush, or *Cyperus haspan —Commelina hexandra panax chrysophilla—Vitex Capitata, Justicia secunda solanum hirtum, cestrum latifolium, Allamanda cathartica, Macroeneum coccineum, frælichia paniculata, spathodea corymbosa, robinia rubiginosa lupinis villosis, glycine picta, Bigonia humilis, tabernæmontana undulata, Zapogomea tomentosa, croton gossypifolium, tragia corniculata, toutalea scandens, &c. &c.* The forests contain the finest wood for ship building and for ornamental purposes, amongst which the red cedar, and a great variety of palms are conspicuous. The nutmeg, cinnamon and clove, have been introduced into the island and flourish, particularly the former. The cacao, or cocoa, (whence the delicious thea broma, or divine beverage is made) is indigenous to the new world; in Mexico, the beans served, even in Humboldt's time, for small coin, as couries do in India—six beans being equivalent to one halfpenny English; the introduction of this wholesome and delightful beverage into the old world is due to the monks, who have ever been great lovers of good things; and

the Castilians, whether in America or Spain, soon learned to consider chocolate a necessary of life,—indeed, it was seriously disputed for sometime among the churchmen of Rome whether it were lawful to consume so nourishing a beverage on a fast day; but the inclinations of the palate naturally prevailed over scruples of conscience, and it was even finally served to the Creole ladies by their slaves in the chapels of Mexico during divine service. The cocoa tree somewhat resembles that producing the English cherry, fifteen feet in height, delighting in a new and productive soil near the margin of a river, and requiring shelter from strong sunshine or violent winds, for which purpose the plantain trees, *Musa Paradisiaca*, or coral bean tree, *Erythrina*, (which the Spaniards call *Madre di Cacao*) are planted between every second row, giving a most luxuriant appearance to a plantation, the long bare stems of tropical trees being strongly contrasted with the rich green of the cacaos below, and here and there brilliant and burning with the golden foliage of the *Bois immortel*, a lofty umbrageous tree, which in the flowering season is covered with clusters of scarlet blossoms of exceeding brightness, and shining like brilliant velvet in the sun-rays; while the lovely butterfly plant (so called from its perfect similitude to the insect) fluttering on its almost invisible stalk, adds beauty and variety to the prospect.

The cultivation of cacao is rapidly extending, and as Europeans are quite adequate to the very trifling degree of labour required for a plantation, it is to be hoped that emigration from Great Britain will take place to the beautiful isle,* where this nourishing product is indigenous to the soil.

The following calendar of the fruits of Trinidad for the year, will demonstrate the variety of delicious food which this valuable colony yields. January produces sappidilloes, pomegranates, sour-sops, plantains, bananas, papas, or papaws. The vegetables are—okros, capsicums of all kinds, which in-

* The annual production of cocoa in Trinidad is about 1,500,000 lbs. weight.

† M. De la Barrere discovered 240 plants in Trinidad, of which he could not discern any thing like them in the Antilles.

deed are common every month in the year; cocoa nuts, which are seldom used but for cakes and puddings, ground down; pigeon, or Angola peas, sweet potatoes, yams of different sorts, and tanias. February, the vegetable called chicon, or christophini comesan. March, grenadilloes are added to the former list. April, Java plums, mangoes, mamme sapoetas, pines of several varieties, the Otaheitan gooseberry, Jamaica plums, cerasees, and bread fruit. May, water-lemons, and cashew apples. June is much the same in her productions; pigeon peas are now nearly out of season. In July the avacado pear comes in; it is also known by the name of the alligator pear, or subaltern's butter, from its inside resembling very yellow fresh butter, both in consistence and colour.

In August the only new fruit is the yellow hog plum; the other fruits in season are the mamme sapoetas and avacado pears. September produces sugar and custard apples, seaside grapes, and Portuguese yams. The fruits and vegetables of October are nearly the same as September; and the only difference in November is the bread-fruit being ripe again. December brings in guavas, and that most excellent production, sorrel. This plant has a succulent stalk, and grows from three to four feet high. There is a blossom, not unlike the common English columbine; there are two varieties, white and red; the blossoms when slightly fermented, produce a delightful beverage, or, stewed with sugar, make tarts or jam. All the orange and lemon tribe, shaddocks, and forbidden fruit, plantains, and bananas, may be had every month in the year, but they abound most from April to September. Mountain cabbage is always in season, and is a most delicious vegetable.

Zoology. As in the vegetable, so in the animal kingdom, there is a great resemblance between Trinidad and the Continent, both being equally free from large or destructive animals, such as the elephant, lion, and tiger. Two species of small deer (*cervus Americanus*) and the mangrove stag, are found in Trinidad, but not in Tobago. The *paca*, or lapo, of Trinidad, is a singular animal; it is rather larger than a hare,

is extremely handsome, cleanly, and easily domesticated; from birth to four or six months, the hair, naturally of a deep red, is spotted with white, which spots then disappear; it is amphibious, dives under water when hunted, and remains there like the otter several minutes;—the flesh is excellent food.

Opossums are numerous; the females have all the membranous pouch, like the kangaroo, for depositing the young. (It is singular that New Holland and America should have the marsupial animals peculiar to them.) The armadilloes, remarkable for their laminated shell, are numerous, and baked in their scaly coats are a good treat. A species of porcupine, (the *hystrix prehensilis* of Linnæus); two species of lizard, termed the Guana and Dragon; two species of ant bears; the lazy sloth; the musk, and crab-swallowing rat; the tiger-cat; the peccary (wild American hog); water-dog (didelphis Philandar); and a variety of monkeys,* are found in Trinidad.

Ichthyology, &c. Among the great variety of fish on the shores of Trinidad, one of the most remarkable is the *squalus zygæna*, measuring twelve feet in length, and thick in proportion, after the shape of the blue shark, and with a mouth like the latter, armed with a triple row of formidable teeth; the eyes are large and terrifying, and the head has the shape of a hammer. Another equally formidable fish is shaped somewhat like a cod, and esteemed excellent eating in the colony, although they have been found with part of a negro in the maw. M. Levaysse states, that the sea cow (*trichecus menati*) is often found in pairs, with their young, browzing on the marine plants in the cocoa nut-groves; their weight is about 1,200 lbs. the flesh tasting like that of the hog, eaten fresh and salted, while the fat forms excellent lard.

* M. Lavaysse assures us that he has seen a tribe of monkies in Trinidad who have a great aversion to water;—if obliged to cross a narrow stream, they climb a tree near the bank, and form a chain by hanging from the tails of each other; the whole string of animals then swing backwards and forwards until the lowest, to whom the post of honour has been assigned, alights on the opposite bank, and pulls over, by the aid of the "tail," his companions on the tree and bank; this singular operation is carried on amidst terrible howling, accompanied with the most frightful cries and grimaces.

Land tortoises of various kinds are abundant, the flesh is delicate and very nourishing; the savannahs (marshes, in the wet season) abound with a great variety of marine birds,* grey partridges, water-hens, flamingoes, and white woodcocks, of delicious flavour; wild ducks are innumerable; one species resembles the East India duck, another the European, and the third is very small, with a beautiful plumage, including blue, rose-coloured, yellow and white, with a brilliant gold-coloured star on the forehead of about an inch in diameter; it is called *Ouikiki.* The brown pelican, scarlet-necked vulture, the lancet bat, or vampyre, the frigate bird, &c. are numerous: parrots and parroquets are in great variety, and of exceeding beauty; the green and gold humming-bird has long been celebrated for its plumage; and the doves and wild pigeons are found of every species. Those magnificent birds termed Haccos, are found at Trinidad, but not at Tobago.

Staple Produce. Previous to 1783 the whole produce of Trinidad was a very small quantity of cocoa, vanilla, indigo, arnotto, cotton and maise, not more than sufficient to employ a small schooner two or three times a year for its conveyance to St. Eustatia. In 1787 the first sugar plantation was formed, and in 1802 the cultivation and produce of some of the principal articles was as follows:—192 sugar plantations yielding 15,461 hogsheads;† 128 coffee ditto, 358,660 lbs.; 57 cocoa ditto, 97,000 lbs.; 101 cotton ditto, 263,000 lbs.; employing shipping annually to the amount of 15,000 tons. In 1807 there were exported to England, British America, and to the United States, 18,235 hogsheads of sugar, or 21,234,600 lbs.; 460,000 gallons of rum; and 100,000 gallons of syrup; there were made besides in the same year, 500,000 lbs. of coffee; 355,000 lbs. of cocoa, and 800,000 lbs. of cotton.

* The Gulf of Paria, near the Bocas, is full of small rocky islets, some of which contain caves of an extraordinary size, in which are found a curious bird, the Diablotin, (for description vide Dominica) which, if eaten when taken from the nest, is pronounced by epicures unrivalled.

† The hogshead in 1802 weighed 1,200 lbs.; it has since been made to contain 1,400 to 1,500 lbs.

The annals of no country present such an extraordinary increase of cultivation, and consequent production of wealth.* The resources of the island are in fact very great; the mountainous portion which cannot be cultivated, forms less than one thirtieth of the surface;† by a measurement in 1799

* PRODUCE OF TRINIDAD FROM 1799 TO 1831.

YEAR.	SUGAR.	COCOA.	COFFEE.	COTTON.	RUM.	MOLASSES.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	gallons.	gallons.
1799	8,419,859	258,390	335,913	323,415	170,671	142,636
1800	9,895,634	284,170	449,614	317,395	194,488	128,507
1801	15,461,912	324,720	328,666	262,997	343,113	173,369
1802	14,164,984	138,669	278,271	190,210	350,049	143,237
1803	16,014,056	361,070	185,658	178,046	344,292	214,120
1804	18,595,416	503,210	304,138	164,069	371,544	355,877
1805	29,438,276	527,690	286,379	256,792	426,469	564,558
1806	29,045,439	588,805	418,049	167,700	399,122	649,432
1808	25,950,928	668,993	387,028	139,200	940,564	606,100
1809	24,856,973	719,230	264,330	134,190	539,081	477,262
1810	21,746,775	726,173	295,443	114,980	463,870	82,163
1811	18,513,302	640,732	276,243	159,136	426,691	324,942
1812	20,971,580	1,375,539	282,460	130,390	548,014	366,070
1813	22,288,145	1,029,512	540,716	184,400	666,761	301,795
1814	21,604,038	1,158,163	382,888	148,505	487,142	262,098
1815	25,075,281	1,065,808	262,289	115,150	523,632	682,718
1816	24,122,415	1,056,662	119,974	93,710	449,067	373,873
1817	22,784,767	1,341,461	215,190	65,951	371,422	351,234
1818	23,200,326	1,232,685	224,972	109,070	439,663	415,251
1819	30,205,731	1,506,445	258,220	131,990	534,626	545,406
1820	30,714,363	1,744,465	211,555	96,545	524,316	471,001
1821	31,127,803	1,648,114	222,809	52,871	496,817	430,092
1822	35,595,932	1,809,730	205,586	64,300	555,878	488,125
1823	37,032,618	1,892,195	245,567	91,550	391,528	658,870
1824	36,855,946	2,443,388	245,592	45,750	344,074	798,814
1825	36,280,347	2,835,935	274,735	58,189	346,543	855,814
1826	43,154,456	2,640,989	275,226	58,030	417,794	995,201
1829	50,089,421	2,206,467	226,123	25,230	400,321	1,362,605
1831	39,240,960	1,479,568	999,373	6,800	390,536	974,031

† Major-General Sir Lewis Grant, whose enlightened government of Trinidad is sensibly appreciated in that island, and by all friends of the colonies, has favoured me with the following note:—'I conceive that the mountains of Trinidad may be cultivated to their summits: the soil is good, and the growth of timber superb; but, until the level land be occupied, they will not, of course, be worth cultivating, from the difficulty of

it was found that there may be formed on the territory 1,313 sugar, 945 coffee, 304 cacoa,* and 158 cotton—plantations of 100 squares, or 320 acres each. A general return for 1831, gives the number of quarrees† of land in cultivation, crop, works, and stock in Trinidad as follows:—

establishing roads. The sandy savannahs are the only barren spots, and they serve to pasture cattle.' Sir Lewis informs me that he has in his possession specimens of Trinidad spices as fine as are to be found in any part of the East. This distinguished officer is a zealous advocate for the colonization of the West Indies with European settlers.

* As I hope ere long to witness the final abolition of the tax (2*d.* per lb.) on cacoa when imported into the United Kingdom from any of our colonies, because it affords a wholesome nutritive diet for the poor, I subjoin the following direction for the cultivation of the plant, which, though now principally confined to Trinidad, may have its growth extended to our other colonies in the E. and W. hemispheres.

The cacao, or chocolate plant delights in a rich soil, if possible near the banks of a river, or in a situation admitting of occasional irrigation. Seedling plants should be raised in the dry and sheltered spots of a nursery ground. The seeds are sown in small raised mounds, at regular intervals, two seeds being deposited in each mound, lightly covered with mould, and sheltered from the scorching sun with plantain leaves or some other cool and umbrageous canopy. If the season be dry *moderate* watering should be used, and if both seeds germinate, the weakest plant must be destroyed. When the shrub attains fifteen or eighteen inches in height, (which will be the case in ten or twelve weeks), its transplantation to the fixed location is necessary. The plants must be arranged in straight rows, in a quincunx form, with a distance between each of sixteen feet, should the soil be rich, and of not less than thirteen if less fertile. Transplantation in dry weather, earth removed with the plants and the tap root deep set when replaced. The cacao delights in the shade; a vertical sun destroys it, therefore it is imperatively necessary to plant between every second row either the plantain tree or the coral bean tree, (erythrina). When the tree is about two years old it usually put forth from five to seven branches from the top, all beyond five are cut away; in about six months more flowers commonly appear, which must be also destroyed;—indeed, it is usual to repeat this abscision annually, until the fifth year, in order that the productive power of the tree may be finally perfected in greater strength. A great number of flowers fall without fructifying; the fruit, while growing, is green, but as it ripens the pod changes to a bluish red, approaching to purple, with pink veins; in some varieties the fruit pod becomes of a delicate yellow or lemon colour. When over ripe the pods sometimes burst, and the seeds fall from their gelatinous pulp. The crop may be said to last throughout the year, but the principal gatherings of the fruit are in June and towards the end of December. No unripe pods must be gathered. The ripe pods are broken with a mallet or cut open, and the seeds separated from the pulp with a wooden spatula; to separate the seeds entirely from the pulp, they are placed in a hole with some dry sand, and left until a very slight fermentation comes on the sand, being frequently stirred and replenished to absorb the moisture from the seeds; when at the end of three or four days the process is completed by spreading out the cacao nuts on rush mats, or upon a platform in the sun to dry, care being taken to prevent rain reaching the seeds. When quite dry and hard the nuts may be lightly packed in bags or boxes, and kept in a dry or airy place for use or exportation.

† A quarree contains three and one-fifth English acres.

TOWNS AND QUARTERS.	Area in Square Miles granted.	QUARRIES OF LAND IN CULTIVATION.										CROP.							WORKS.								STOCK.											
		In Canes.	In Cocoa.	No. of Cocoa Trees.	In Coffee.	In Cotton.	In Negro Grounds.	In Estates' Provisions.	In Pasture.	Total in Cultivation.	Not in Cultivation.	Total held by Proprietors.	Lbs. Sugar.	Packed in Hogsheads.	Packed in Tierces.	Packed in Barrels.	Lbs. Cocoa.	Lbs. Coffee.	Lbs. Cotton.	Gallons of Rum.	Gallons Molasses.	Water Mills.	Wind Mills.	Cattle Mills.	Steam Engines.	Coffee Mills.	Boilers mounted.	Stills.	Number of Gallons.	Carts.	Boats.	Horses and Mares.	Mules.	Asses.	Cows and Calves.	Bulls and Oxen.	Sheep.	Goats.
Aricagua . .	12	201	40	36,800	2		117	20	114	494	571	1065	1,084,900	598	4	603	20,850	1,400		13,700	21,800	1		6			35	4	880	18		13	142	6	80	43	66	8
Arima . .	30	30	239	294,500	2		82	78	100	619	1294	1923	82,000	60			184,430	200		1,900				1		4	1	300	11	6	16	27	17	41	22		19	
Bocas . .	44					66	47	40	8	161	282	443	20						5600					1		4	1	300		22	4	1	1		12	12		
Carenage & Cuesse	16	249	15	14,200	18		111	29	124	546	951	1497	672,882	412	8	56	6,000	4,806		10,188	9,400			5	2	6	38	5	1040	28	8	18	99	7	50	75	28	
Carapichaima .	5	586	75	65,780	2		194	108	167	1133	2634	3767	2,804,660	1575	32	301	480	400		12,010	77,332			7	8	1	90	8	2160	64	13	61	164	12	196	140	18	12
Carenal . .	52	56	61	52,000			50	19	54	240	654	894	192,400	137		30	18,000			1,450	6,800			4			14	1	250	5	6	2	36		17	39		
Cedros . .	12	261	1	1,500	5		108	36	102	615	1178	1793	2,010,085	1261	8	535				29,580	45,465			10			44	7	2065	23	19	20	256	4	49	45	71	30
Chaguanas . .	24	395	126	93,000			115	32	159	840	1215	2055	1,463,950	908	33	48	77,000			20,192	28,770			3	6		61	4	1250	39	6	13	155	9	45	55		
Chaguaramas .	12	3					22	59	102	186	546	732									3,000			1	6			3			2	67		14	2		5	
Cimaronero . .	6	81	44	35,400	1		34	18	41	219	318	537	490,000	245		250	84,210	700		5,900	7,795	1					9	1	300	8		6	27	4	17	24	6	
Diego Martin .	15	213	56	55,070	69		116	70	172	636	1232	1927	827,425	511		245	18,124	21,969		17,444	6,080	1		5	1	12	28	9	2430	40	1	19	100	23	110	98	1	11
Erin . . .	4	70	5	40,800	3		13	13	13	164	131	295	273,800	183			3,700			10,150	200		1	1			10	1	300	2	2	3	24	6	2	10	3	
Eastern Coast .	7						57	15	102	691	793																			4	6				62	24	47	240
Guanapo . .	100	10	447	337,400			70	73	92	692	2259	2951	4,600			20	281,595				1,429			2			5			5	2	15	32	7	77	10	5	30
Guapo . . .		194					64	13	160	430	763	1193	1,041,988	643	1	318					26,900			6	4		25	1	200	14	4	98	169	4	98	110		
Hicacos . .	7	54					13	23	18	108	477	585	264,683	180	1	33				3,850	4,777			2			8	1	200	5		5	42	5	35	18	30	35
Irois . . .	12	60					12		30	102	98	200	175,000	125		2					8,000			1			4					2		40	26		6	
La Brea & Guapo	17	144			2		49	16	96	307	504	811	715,000	433		49					21,300			3		1	13			10	15	5	79	1	22	31	30	
Las Cuevas .	14				3		4	30		37	244	281						900												8								
La Ventille .	5	28	20	19,500	21		28	57	22	176	278	454	109,400	69		23	3,960	3,600			5,000	1		1		9	11			6	10	7	28		10	5	20	12
Maraval . .	15	87	104	96,788	128		77	51	52	494	969	1453	406,000	236		267	14,516	21,098		11,500	10,092	1		1		1	26	13	1290	18		15	46	5	57	39	2	13
Mayaro & Guayre	21	284	22	36,080		2	116	68	201	732	980	1708	1,310,000	890		28			1200	16,900	77,000		1	6			25	3	900	19	9	26	226	7	81	88	128	
Macurapo . .	3	34			1		8	9	28	80	101	181	121,866	73	1	17		1,000		4,230	456			1		1	5	1	360	8	4	3	38	8	49	16	18	6
Maracas Valley	11	11	38	342,063	1		37	117	79	636	1129	1765	40,000			200	208,625	11,157		1,900				1			6			5		19	37	8	22	8	15	20
North Naparima	12	215			5		190	33	184	1237	1090	2417	4,070,126	2568	49	398		150		35,916	75,589		2	25	3	2	131	16	4510	74		61	494	24	56	120	1	12
Oropuche . .	14	356					83	11	99	549	908	1457	1,650,290	974	4	366					48,476			11	1		46	3	700	33	10	16	197	2	17	68		
Point-a-Pierre .	20	633	58	50,100	5		238	60	153	1147	1342	2489	1,991,600	1177	20	217	10,100	2,050		28,490	33,741		1	11	4	1	84	11	3160	55	12	78	272	11	64	140		18
Savonetta . .		502					174	17	187	880	1206	2086	2,061,400	1201	78	317				23,637	47,774			13	2		70	8	2230	55	1	11	224	4	95	122	7	
South Naparima	35	1781	44	12,700	2		327	80	292	2536	2298	4833	8,231,562	5836	106	911				16,724	271,092		2	46	4		238	14	3105	118	13	98	1289	15	81	161	50	4
St. Ann's . .	7	5	20	18,000	33		11	62	40	171	333	504					5,089	15,507			1,500			1		4				11		21	12	7	74	6	4	2
Santa Cruz . .	16	8	476	414,758	45		109	157	75	870	3278	4148					419,092	10,987			1,450			2		16				5		19	34	10	68	13		9
St. Joseph . .	6	190	72	68,300	1		58	11	115	447	407	854	858,000	493	1	275	38,470	1,000		3,757	20,300	1	1	7	1	1	39	4	950	30		17	104	2	68	67	66	14
Savanna Grande	18	544	25	19,000			132	37	95	833	1261	2094	2,488,880	1508	1	313		1,200		19,400	41,660		1	15	8		83	9	1950	55		74	359	12	30	113	7	10
Tacarigua & Arouca	35	712	123	109,983	1		265	57	223	1378	2835	4213	3,292,813	1989	10	163	37,976			87,429	51,289	6		5	2	1	84	13	4100	85	2	28	221	5	234	312	54	3
Toco and Cumana	7	14	27	13,260			6	5	4	56	125	181	5,250			25	9,240				350	1		1			4				15		11	2		2	7	
Tragarete . .	3	110	10	6,000			25	3	28	177	77	254	474,600	288		13	600			4,234	14,274			2	1		19	4	950	27		9	45		21	62	4	
Valley of Caura	8		378	209,360	17		16	69	21	365	386	698					106,661														5	14		6				
Town of St. Juan																														2	1	1		1				
St. Joseph Arima				34,100	3		15			56	795	851					10,670	1,200													7	1		3	2	7	12	
Part of Spain .	1																													42	5	9	1	4			1	
																															157	34	1	196	1	34	146	
Total . .		8921	2972	3,464,426	349	68	3151	1699	3462	20,512	35,718	56,230	39,240,960	24,616	358	5858	1,479,568	99,373	6800	390,536	974,081	12	8	209	40	33	1276	134	35,980	930	243	908	5088	226	2130	2128	720	742

Population. When Trinidad was first discovered by Europeans it had a dense Indian community, who, on its occupation by the Spaniards, were murdered or transported to the Hispaniola mines, to make room for the new occupiers, who seized on the lands of those they had slain or sent into a captivity worse than death. In 1783, the number of mouths was only—whites, 126, coloured free, 295, slaves, 310, and Indians of all ages, 2,032; total, 2,763. Owing to the circumstances detailed elsewhere, relative to the throwing open of the island to settlers, the population thus subsequently increased.

Abstract of the Annual Population Returns.

Years.	WHITE.					COLOURED.					INDIANS.					Chinese.*	Slaves.	Grand Total.
			Children					Children					Children					
	Men.	Women.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Males.	Females.	Total.			
1797	994	590	301	266	2151	1196	1624	898	756	4474	301	401	190	186	1078		10009	17712
1798																		
1799	930	606	301	291	2128	1281	1601	859	853	4594	345	242	273	283	1143		14110	21975
1800	1010	711	327	311	2359	1241	1620	807	740	4408	344	217	211	299	1071		15012	22850
1801	978	696	292	267	2153	1347	1740	925	888	4900	291	354	297	270	1212		15964	24229
1802	1061	625	275	261	2222	1504	1896	956	919	5275	321	311	274	260	1166		19709	28372
1803	961	637	266	259	2123	1494	1751	827	740	4812	327	320	271	236	1154		20138	28227
1804	1228	662	329	342	2561	1709	2198	1171	1024	6102	387	427	293	309	1416		20925	31004
1805	1154	652	301	317	2434	1606	2101	1094	1000	5801	488	543	372	330	1733		20108	30076
1806	1073	589	296	316	2274	1502	1980	1047	872	5401	397	478	383	349	1607		21761	31043
1807																		
1808	1150	649	359	312	2470	1729	2272	1310	1167	6478	396	483	390	366	1635		21895	32478
1809	1212	669	360	348	2589	1683	2212	1289	1200	6384	412	484	377	374	1647		21475	32095
1810	1147	654	344	342	2487	1680	2195	1240	1154	6269	404	472	404	379	1659		20728	31143
1811	1165	725	389	338	2617	1790	2380	1456	1417	7043	422	476	415	403	1716		21841	33217
1812	1222	716	434	393	2765	1778	2426	1497	1365	7066	433	479	459	433	1804			
1813	1250	749	445	452	2896	2089	2675	1685	1653	8102	312	346	308	299	1265		25717	37980
1814	1272	863	523	469	3127	2216	2926	1823	1749	8714	351	374	252	259	1236			
1815	1288	869	531	531	3219	2482	3103	2045	2023	9653	318	342	249	238	1147		24329	38348
1816	1333	1000	585	594	3512	2863	3513	2215	2064	10655	267	337	315	222	1141	24	25871	41203
1817	1461	1071	629	632	3793	3124	3902	2487	2343	11856	324	361	279	193	1157	33	23328	40667
1818	1254	881	533	553	3221	3040	3708	2246	2343	11337	244	254	238	193	939	28	22380	37905
1819	1463	1060	584	609	3716	3571	4210	2385	2319	12485	223	257	190	180	850	30	23691	40772
1820	1455	1074	600	578	3707	3999	4679	2594	2693	13965	267	254	209	180	910	28	22738	41348
1821	1345	972	534	589	3440	3728	4418	2635	2607	13388	240	268	237	211	956	23	21719	39526
1822	1311	942	553	535	3341	3742	4430	2669	2551	13392	218	234	222	219	893	20	23227	40873
1823	1397	955	523	511	3386	3857	4500	2526	2464	13347	200	259	229	184	872	16	23110	41288
1824	1328	955	514	516	3313	4024	4884	2657	2430	13995	209	219	192	163	783	12	23117	41220
1825	1302	1020	490	498	3310	4503	5066	2740	2674	14983	183	201	195	148	727	12	23230	42262
1831	1289	926	581	523	3319	4398	5314	3335	3238	16285	202	218	187	155	762	7	21302	41675

* These natives of the eastern hemisphere were brought to the west for the purpose of cultivating rice, and perhaps, with the idea of forming a free labouring population; unfortunately no Chinese women were induced to accompany them; the men soon became discontented, and there now remain but a few of them as fishermen.

The Slave Population, according to a Parliamentary Return, was in numbers, from 1816 to 1828, as follows:—*

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Decrease by Manumission.	
				Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1816 ..	14,133	11,411	25,544	—	—	—	—	—	—
1819 ..	13,155	10,382	23,537	739	669	1417	1352	151	235
1822 ..	13,052	10,336	23,388	757	731	1303	1101	190	277
1825 ..	17,435	11,017	24,452	812	824	1063	692	182	259
1828 ..	12,591	11,185	23,776	710	759	1079	767	177	241

General Return of the Population of Trinidad for the Year 1831:—

* It will be observed from the foregoing, that the Indian or aboriginal population are fast decreasing, and, it is to be feared, they will utterly pass away, unless measures be adopted for their preservation; what these measures should be is another question; the Indians will not amalgamate with the negroes, from whom they totally differ in appearance and manners: their stature is short, (seldom exceeding five feet six inches) of a yellow colour, with dark eyes and long hair, glossy as a raven's wing; the wide space between the nostrils and upper lip is very remarkable, (so indicative of wisdom and firmness in the European), and although with an immense breadth of frame, or rather massiveness between the shoulders, their hands and feet (as among the Hindoos and Tartars) are small boned and delicately shaped. In their present state apathy is certainly predominant; neither joy or sorrow seems to affect them—they appear to be without curiosity or anger—the prominent traits of savage life. I cannot think with Mr. Coleridge, that this extraordinary, I may say mysterious, race of beings are inferior to the negroes, their countenances, when lit up by the passions of the soul, pourtray the most intense mental emotions, and the abject state to which the whites have reduced them, does not present a fair field for comparison; while lamenting their utter destruction in the islands and on the continent, I confess my inability to divine the inscrutable dispensations of Providence.

TOWNS and QUARTERS.	WHITE.					COLOURED.					INDIANS.					Chinese.	SLAVES.—PLANTATION.						SLAVES.—PERSONAL.						Total Number of Slaves.	Grand Total of Persons.
																	Africans		Creoles.				Africans		Creoles.					
	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.		Men.	Wom.	Men.	Wom.	Boys.	Girls.	Men.	Wom.	Men.	Wom.	Boys.	Girls.		
Aricagua	17	4	4	9	34	18	23	12	15	68							89	70	75	85	64	69	6	12	12	15	9	13	513	615
Arima	13	8	9	12	42	59	59	45	48	211		2	1	2	5		40	26	48	54	53	33	2	8	17	6	9	7	303	561
Bocas	19	14	3	6	42	27	28	16	11	82							38	20	21	35	35	31	4	8	6	16	9	23	243	367
Carenage & Cuesse	14	9	6	4	33	46	84	53	53	236							65	61	86	92	57	49	6	5	6	6	4	12	449	718
Caroni	11	3	8	11	33	46	39	28	31	144							16	22	34	35	27	19	3	2	2	4	1	5	179	347
Cedros and Couvas	19	10	6	2	37	80	59	26	35	200							93	68	102	84	56	44	1	2	6	12	3	3	474	711
Chaguanas	14	3	2	1	23	44	22	10	12	84							110	88	143	98	77	62	2	5	2	11	6	5	620	734
Chaguaramas	10	6	7	2	25	76	77	39	41	23							15	16	21	19	18	16	3	4	3	3		3	121	379
Cimaronero	4	3	5	2	14	25	34	13	15	87							42	22	15	26	29	31	3	9	8	10	13	8	222	323
Carapichaima	27	3	10	8	48	111	94	73	80	358	7	5	5	7	24		233	203	190	205	200	153	4	1	12	12	5	8	1226	1656
Diego Martin	11	8	2	1	22	80	98	75	79	332							89	87	89	124	82	77	14	6	13	27	15	4	667	981
Erin	7	2			9	133	106	75	77	391							7	11	29	25	13	12	7	3	4	5	3	3	122	522
Eastern Coast	13	2	3		18	251	46	32	39	368													1	3	1	3		3	11	397
Guanapo	31	28	33	7	99	214	144	126	130	614	1	1	3	1	6		52	24	39	42	41	33	3	6	9	12	8	14	283	1002
Guapo	14	4	1	4	23	15	18	9	14	56							58	37	63	58	34	25	5	3	10	11	4	4	309	388
Hicacos	8	2		4	14	38	53	24	22	137							15	6	5	9	11	9	3	7	11	16	9	7	106	257
Irois	1	1	1		3	12	8	4	5	29							12	5	14	18	4	1			1	1			56	88
La Brea	10	3	3	2	18	31	34	27	28	120							54	29	43	45	39	19	4	8	16	14	9	6	286	424
Las Cuevas	1				1	21	25	23	16	85							1	5	1		2	5		1	2	4	3	2	26	112
La Ventille	20	23	14	10	67	173	213	131	87	604							11	14	8	10	9	5	20	21	13	23	17	14	165	836
Maraval	9	6	2	4	21	123	141	100	88	452							45	41	79	64	43	51	8	8	10	29	21	20	419	892
Mayaro & Guayre	10	2		1	13	41	42	30	20	133							83	76	127	113	53	61	1	2	11	15	6	3	551	697
Mucurapo	15	9	5	6	35	18	13	6	6	43							3	5	23	23	8	10	4	2	11	4	7	9	109	187
Maracas Valley	30	29	13	17	89	128	134	122	122	506							45	23	21	31	51	53	3	4	6	7	5	8	254	849
North Naparima	68	22	8	4	102	128	168	103	105	504							215	154	205	199	130	143	19	49	65	89	42	48	1340	1946
Oropuche	12				12	48	33	25	32	138	7	16	11	3	37		76	58	73	87	40	35	7	2	9	10	5	4	409	596
Point-a-Pierre	25	13	8	7	53	35	44	20	24	123							169	115	181	202	124	142	7	8	15	27	15	13	1018	1194
Savonetta	23	2	4	3	32	10	15	10	8	43							185	119	157	162	146	106	2		3	4	9	3	896	971
South Naparima	58	10	6	9	83	56	67	40	40	203							346	238	456	453	346	382	55	52	99	100	101	71	2699	2985
St. Ann's	19	14	10	13	56	128	154	100	118	500							15	16	30	17	22	9	15	22	24	38	19	18	245	801
Santa Cruz	20	21	19	22	82	179	189	138	122	618	1		2		3		52	42	64	54	58	43	10	10	18	18	17	13	398	1101
St. Joseph	17	13	4	4	38	29	38	22	22	111							89	66	59	61	63	60	5	2	15	15	11	9	455	604
Savanna Grande	25	3	3	1	32	482	297	395	372	1546	46	39	64	56	207		106	97	110	101	103	93	24	7	87	110	75	72	987	2772
Tacarigua & Arouca	38	14	11	10	73	95	85	75	86	341	1	1	1		3		219	148	230	229	180	161	10	12	28	19	16	19	1291	1708
Toco and Cumana	5	2	1		8	67	60	38	47	212	49	52	26	17	144		3	2	3	2	1		3	4	9	10	7	5	51	415
Tragarete	10	7	2	2	21	16	25	9	11	61							33	20	40	31	14	19	13	8	21	33	11	18	201	343
Valley of Caura	17	21	7	12	57	76	84	74	66	300	9	8	6	7	32		13	8	7	17	11	11			1			1	69	458
Town of St. Juan's	3	5		1	9	28	75	26	24	153													3	10	5	15	14	1	57	219
St. Joseph	9	17	10	6	42	22	39	21	32	114									1	3			3	10	8	21	14	10	76	232
St. Arima	18	22	10	9	59	20	42	19	23	104	81	92	66	54	293								1	4	3	7	7	16	37	488
Port of Spain	584	568	341	307	1800	1173	2305	1131	1032	5641		2		1	3	7							199	365	635	985	598	576	3358	10809
	1289	926	581	523	3319	4898	5314	3335	3238	16285	202	218	187	155	762	7	2740	2037	2906	2915	2241	2086	483	667	1236	1758	1127	1086	21302	41675

COMMERCE, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS. The trade of the island may, to a great extent, be judged of by the quantity of produce raised in it, as given at page 245. For twelve consecutive years the quantity of the principal articles exported from Trinidad is thus shewn,—

Exported Produce of Trinidad from 1821 to 1832:—

Years.	Sugar.			Molasses.		Rum.	Cocoa.	Coffee.	Cotton.		Indigo.
	Hhds.	Tierces.	Bar.	Hhds.	Tier.	Pun.	lbs.	lbs.	Bales.	Seroons.	Seroons
1821	20,412	576	7,999	2,730	..	12,08	1,214,093	199,555	268	..	..
1822	20,051	714	7,908	2,932	..	761	1,780,379	347,399	222	..	..
1823	23,662	510	7,038	6,245	..	566	2,424,703	299,404	460	..	..
1824	23,362	882	6,856	7,409	..	471	2,661,628	284,637	352	..	..
1825	22,512	16,370	7,890	7,896	..	68	2,760,603	177,348	492	567	..
1826	25,541	1,358	8,075	8,672	..	353	2,951,171	321,254	107	2,811	..
1827	26,075	1,320	7,618	9,694	..	589	3,696,144	373,424	201	2,368	..
1828	29,605	1,067	6,634	11,320	306	285	2,582,323	266,754	148	2,915	50
1829	30,629	877	5,184	10,686	596	559	2,756,603	199,015	123	1,234	10
1830	91,812	480	3,781	4,846	163	258	1,646,531	197,860	50	1,010	7
1831	23,756	449	5,500	8,297	94	853	1,888,852	19,994	31	250	12
1832	25,912	774	6,895	10,977	504	65	1,530,990	150,966	40	498	11
1833											
1834											

The *Imports* valued in sterling money, were in 1831, from Great Britain, £182,856; from British Colonies, £51,197; from Foreign States, £66,514:—total, £300,567. The Exports were, to Great Britain, £202,057; to British Colonies, £30,428; to Foreign States, £11,907:—total, £244,392, making a grand total of maritime commerce to the amount of £544,959. The shipping employed in the trade of the island will be seen from the following official return.

Shipping of Trinidad, Inwards and Outwards:—

Years.	SHIPS INWARDS, FROM									SHIPS OUTWARDS, TO							
	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total			Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1826	77	9,241	151	10,532	214	19,399	442	210236	4212	76	16,920	167	1,039	178	17,368	429	44,327
1827	83	16,375	185	11,845	158	11,043	426	41585	..	87	19,823	217	15,139	124	11,380	428	46,342
1828	102	22,364	151	12,884	176	11,371	429	46619	..	109	23,928	218	15,986	102	8,435	429	48,349
1829	99	24,333	179	17,058	206	14,324	484	55715	..	101	23,804	245	19,171	135	11,104	481	54,079
1830	59	13,865	174	13,681	148	10,619	381	38165	..	71	17,755	216	17,191	123	10,235	410	45,181
1831	88	21,611	189	14,860	103	9,136	380	45787	..	73	17,807	218	16,034	78	8,274	369	42,115
1832																	
1833																	

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES. The following are the Spanish Weights and Measures, and the proportion they bear to each other.

WEIGHTS.

The Fanega	=	110 lbs. English
— Quintal	=	100 "
1 Aroba	=	25 "
4 Arobas	=	1 Quintal.

MEASURES.

Varas.		Estadale.		Solare.		Suerte.		
100	=	1						
2500	=	25	=	1.				
10000	=	100	=	4	=	1		Fanega.
40000	=	400	=	16	=	4	=	1

	English Inches.
The Vara of Castille . . .	32,529
Seville . . .	33,127
Madrid . . .	39,166

The Measures used in surveying in Trinidad is the Quarrée, containing 18,526¼ Varas of Castile, or 3 and 1-5th English Acres; consequently 100 Quarrée are equal to 320 acres.

The side of a square of a Quarrée or 3 and 1-5th English Acres, is equal to 373 8-11ths English feet; 408¼ Spanish ditto; 350 French ditto, or 136 and 1-10th Spanish Varas.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT. The administrative functions of Trinidad are entirely despotic, though nominally vested in a government aided by an executive and legislative committee. The executive council consists of three *official* members (viz. the Colonial Secretary, the Colonial Treasurer and Attorney General), selected from the Legislative Councils;—they have no powers, and no other functions than counsellors of the Governor, who may follow their advice or not, as he pleases. The Legislative Council consists of twelve members, six of whom are styled official, holding offices and salaries at the pleasure of the Crown, viz. the Chief Justice, the Colonial Secretary, Attorney General, Colonial Treasurer, Public Prosecutor, and Collector of Customs, and six are styled *non*

official, selected from amongst the inhabitants, the whole removable at the pleasure of the Crown. The governor presides at the board, has a vote, and a casting vote in addition, and no measure can be introduced or proposed at the board which he objects to! So that the whole power and function of the board are virtually lodged in his hands, although nominally the laws may be passed, and the taxes imposed by the legislative council. The inhabitants of Trinidad are very properly endeavouring to obtain something more liberal than such a mockery of freedom.

The Cabildo in its authority and functions resembles our municipal corporations:—it has power to raise revenues which are derived from licenses to the dealers in spirituous liquors, to hucksters, &c. and from a tax on carts, and on meat and fish sold in the town of Port of Spain, thus realizing about £12,000 per annum, with which the streets and market-house are kept in repair, and the salaries of the police officers paid. All other salaries are paid out of the Colonial Treasury. The laws are principally Spanish, executed after the Spanish form, with some modifications; the titles of Alcade, Alquazil, &c. are always used instead of the corresponding terms in English.

Trinidad Militia. Every freeman of the island is enrolled in the militia, which is composed of artillery, cavalry and infantry, with a very numerous staff. Their appearance on the great plain before St. Anne's is really superb; the muster is about 4,500, and a more efficient state of discipline is kept up than perhaps in any of the other islands. The Governor is of course Commander-in-Chief; there are two Brigadiers-General, an Adjutant, Commissary, Paymaster, Muster-Master, Provost-Marshal, and Judge Advocate-*General;* with deputies to each; Physician, Surgeon, and Apothecary General, and of Field Officers, two Colonels, twenty-one Lieutenant-Colonels, twelve Majors, and fifty-seven Captains. The uniforms are various and splendid;—the artillery is blue, with red facings, and gold lace; the royal Trinidad light dragoons blue, facings buff, and lace silver; mounted chasseurs and light infantry green uniform; and the sea fencibles blue, with

white facings; and so on through the whole of the other corps. The fines for non-attendance on parade, agreeably to the resolutions for the government of the militia forces of this island are—

	dol.		dol.
A Colonel . . .	80	Sergeant-Major and Qr.-Master Sergeant .	8
Lieutenant Colonel .	50	Sergeant . . .	6
Major, . . .	40	Corporal . . .	5
Captain . . .	12	Private—first offence .	4
Lieutenant, Ensign, Surgeon, Adjutant, and Quarter-Master .	8	second . .	6

and for the third renders himself liable to be brought to trial by a general regimental court martial, which court is empowered to pass sentence of fine and imprisonment; not however exceeding twenty dollars, and forty-eight hours confinement. And should a fourth offence occur, any private so offending, is liable, on conviction before a court martial, to be removed from the colony, as being inimical to the regulations established for the security and good order thereof. Besides the militia, these are the head quarters of a European regiment of the line, and part of a West India regiment.

Taxation and Expenditure. It is difficult to learn the actual financial state of any of our colonies; no measure would be more advantageous to the general weal and commerce of the empire than the appointment of commissioners to visit the different colonies, and make explicit reports on this important subject. Trinidad defrays the whole expenses of its civil establishment, the extent of which is fixed by the Secretary for the colonies in England, without the Governor or Council having the power to increase or diminish the amount of the expenditure. The following are the colonial duties payable at the treasury:—

On Imports.	*per Cent.*	On Exports.	*per Cent.*
On Invoice, excepting Cotton, Linen, & Cod Fish,	3½	On the value of Produce regulated per Tariff of the Market Price	3½
On Wines	7		
On Spirits 4*s.* per gallon in addition to .	3½		

TARE—Hogsheads and tierces, 14 lbs. per cent.; on barrels, 20 lbs. each; and on bags, 3 lbs. each, Transient Property to pay 2½ per cent. Tonnage duty, 6*d.* sterling per ton.

Duties on bequests by will made in Trinadad :—

In the ascending line . . .	£2	per £100
Collateral line of the first degree . .	2½	ditto.
Of the second degree . . .	3½	ditto.
Of the third degree . . .	4½	ditto.
To illegitimate or natural children . .	6	ditto.
To all other persons . . .	7	ditto.
Bequests from the fifth . . .	6	ditto.
And on all legacies, or inheritances paid to persons, residents of a foreign colony or state (except in the descending line) an addition of	2	ditto.

Besides the foregoing, there is a tax of 5 per cent. on the assessed rent of houses; and a poll tax of 8*s.* 8*d.* sterling on each slave.

The taxation raised on the principal items is £15,000. on colonial produce exported, being levied at the rate of 3½ per cent. *ad valorem;* £8000. on all goods imported at the same rate, except British linens, cottons, and salt fish; £10,000. on slaves as a poll tax; and £2,500. on the annual rents of houses. The civil establishment costs £10.000, and the judicial £7,000. A recent Parliamentary return states the revenue and expenditure for five years thus:—

	1824 £.	1825 £.	1826 £.	1827 £.	1828 £.	1829 £.	1830 £.	1831* £.	1832 £.
Taxation	36,280	44,332	54,921	50,080	49,196	43,196			
Expenditure	37,587	35,958	44,589	54,015	36,584	36,584			

The amount of the principal salaries is annually—Governor, £4,000.; Chief Judge, £2,000.; first Puisne, £1,500.; second Ditto, £1,500.; Island Secretary, £8,00.; Register, £600.;

* Mr. Porter's Board of Trade Statistical Vol. gives the gross revenue of Trinidad for 1831 at 34,993*l.* The expense of civil establishments, 41,801*l.*; and the charges incurred by the colony for garrisons, 726*l.*; total, 42,527*l.*

Attorney-General, £1,200.; Treasurer, £800.; Examiner of Public Accounts, £400.; Escriband to Judicial Courts, £8,000.; Commissioners of Population, £500.

A very large sum is raised by fees, the tables for regulating which occupy the greater part of the colonial almanac; it would seem very desirable that such a system were in a great measure reformed. By the 114th cap. 6. Geo. IV., all custom-house fees are wisely abolished, under a penalty of £100. for any officer receiving such fee or bribe, besides dismissal from office.

MONIES. Accounts are kept in dollars and bits, (reals are sometimes denoted, particularly in the multifarious fees of the Roman Catholic church); the difference between the Colonial currency and sterling is—*3d.* cur.=1¼*d.* sterling; 1*s.* cur.=5¼*d.* sterling; £1. cur.=8*s.* 8*d.* sterling.

VALUE OF PROPERTY. Referring to the general remarks on the value of property, as made under British Guyana, I give the following table as the nearest approximation to truth—

Value of Property Annually Created, and Moveable and Immoveable, in Trinidad.

PROPERTY ANNUALLY CREATED.			PROPERTY MOVEABLE AND IMMOVEABLE								
			Land.		Public Property.	Private Property.			Bullion or Coin in Circulation.	Total Property Annually Created.	Total Property, Moveable and Immoveable.
Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated and Ungranted.	Roads, Buildings, Wharfs, Cranes, Tanks, &c.	Dwelling Houses, Stores, Furniture, Cloaks, &c.	Roads, Wharfs, Machinery, Boats, &c.	Horses, Cattle, Mules, Goats, &c.			
Cwts. 357,143 at 28s. £357,148	gallons. 450,000 at 1s. 6d. 80,000	gallons. 1000,000 at 10½, 41,666	400,000 acres. at £10. 4,000,000	1,600,000 acres. at 5s. 380,000	1,000,000	1,500,000	600,000	100,000	60,000	1,322,100	7,710,000

Cocoa.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Vegetable Food, &c.	Animal Food and Fish.	Manufactures, Income and Sundries.
lbs. 1,500,000 at 6d. 37,500	lbs. 1,000,000 at 7d. 29,166	lbs. 25,000 at 6d. 625	at £3. per annum each, 136,000	at £5. per annum each, 210,000	600,000

GENERAL VIEW AND FUTURE PROSPECTS. No person can peruse even the brief description now given of this lovely isle, without admitting its importance and value to Great Britain, not only in reference to its fertile soil, and the quantity of crown land lying waste,* but also with regard to its admirable position on the S. American coast, by means of which an extensive depot may be formed for continental commerce, as the civilization and wealth of the Transatlantic republics increase. The remarks made under Jamaica, in reference *to the future prospects* of that island, apply equally well to Trinidad, as regards the ultimate result of the Slave Emancipation Bill. The grand principle by which our colonies ought to have been governed, after they have arrived at a certain extent of population and wealth, has not yet been applied to Trinidad. I am confident, however, that the inhabitants of Trinidad have only to press forward their claims for a Legislative Assembly, with somewhat of vigour and energy, and their prayer will not be refused by the ministers of the crown or the Parliament of the nation. If our fellow subjects in Trinidad be not admitted to send a representative to sit in the Imperial Assembly, they must, in common justice, be permitted to manage their local affairs by a local assembly at home. The colonies possessing local legislative assemblies are not only no drain on the British exchequer, but a very great support to it; and although Trinidad now defrays the *whole of its civil* and a part of its military defence, yet would its inhabitants yield more readily a greater revenue if allowed

* Situation and extent of the Crown Lands, in acres, in Trinidad in 1827:—

Arima, 11,439; Carenage and Cuesse, 6,221; Caroni, 30,858; Cudros, 2,135; Chaguanas, 8,010; Coura, Savanetta, &c. 22,969; Diego Martin, 2,427; Erin, 1,491; Guanapo, 52,317; Hicacos, 3,017; Irios, 6,474; Labrea and Guapo, 6,474; Las Cuevas, 4,502; Maraval, 4,021; Maraccas Valley, 1,328; Mayaro, 7,685; Oropuche, 3,175; Point a Pierre, 4,527; South Naparima, 5,902; Santa Cruz, 406; Savanna Grande, 733; Jacariqua and Arauca, 9,763; Joco and Cumana, 2,765; Valley of Caura, 2,955; land in the interior undefined in its boundaries, 881,658. Total of crown lands in Trinidad, 1,080,500 acres.

to tax themselves; or they would be enabled to relieve themselves of injurious fiscal imposts by curtailing unnecessary taxation, and by keeping a watchful eye over the expenditure of the government. However, as I propose giving a general view of Ancient and Modern Colonial Policy in the fifth volume of this work, I reserve for that period any further remarks on this important branch of my subject.

CHAPTER IV.

TOBAGO.

ITS LOCALITY—GENERAL HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY—CLIMATE—ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS—POPULATION—COMMERCE—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE—GOVERNMENT, &c.

LOCALITY. In 11. 16 N. lat. 60. 30 W. long. the western end distant but six miles from Trinidad, and the eastern twenty-four leagues from Grenada, is situate Tobago, the most southerly of the Caribbee islands, about thirty-two miles long, in an E. N. E. direction; and in its greatest breadth twelve miles, embracing a mountainous area of 44 square miles.

GENERAL HISTORY. Tobago, or *Tobacco*, was discovered by Columbus in 1496, and thus named after the pipe used by the islanders in smoking the herb now so extensively used in the Old World, and then termed *Kohiba*.* When first visited it was found to be peopled by a race since well known under the denomination of Caribs, who were at continual war with another nation denominated the Arrawaaks, residing on the main land.† The Tobagians sometime after left the island and retired from the pursuit of the Arrawaaks to St. Vincents,‡ where, it is said, they lived in peace with the Indians inhabiting that isle. In 1580, the British flag was planted on the island; in 1608, James the First claimed its sovereignty; no effectual colonization however then took place,§ although the isle was granted to the Earl of Pembroke in 1628 by

* The herb and pipe bore the same name at the other extremity of the Carib Archipelago in St. Domingo.

† Vide chapter on British Guyana for a description of these people.

‡ It would appear from this that the Arrawaaks, as asserted by some, were a nation of Caribs, differing in some points from those now generally called by the name of Carib.

§ A small British Colony is said to have settled on the island from Barbadoes, in 1625; but it was subsequently abandoned. A description of Tobago is said to have suggested the scenery of Crusoe's island to De Foe.

Charles the First. Some Dutch navigators visited Tobago on their return voyage from the Brazils, and, struck with its advantageous situation for trade with the continent, as also with the beauty of its climate and the richness of its soil, a company of Flushing traders formed an establishment on the almost deserted isle in 1632, founding the colony with 200 persons, and naming it New Walcheren in honour of their native home; but, in 1634, before the Hollanders had time to fortify themselves, the jealousy of the Spaniards of Trinidad was roused, and, aided by some native Indians, the Dutch that escaped the onslaught were conducted as prisoners to Trinidad, the rising walls of the fortress of New Walcheren razed, the cannon and stores carried off, and the plantations utterly destroyed. For nearly twenty succeeding years the island remained untenanted, but occasionally frequented by seamen from Martinique and Guadaloupe to fish for turtle, or by the Indians of St. Vincent and the other Antilles, who touched there on their frequent expeditions against the Arrawaaks of the Orinoco.

In 1654* some merchants at Flushing, named the Lampsins, obtained a charter from the government of the United Provinces, authorizing their occupation of Tobago for their sole use, with the privilege of appointing a Governor and Magistrates, but giving a veto to the Dutch government at home on the nomination of the former. The spirit of commerce was then at its height in Holland, and Tobago, or New Walcheren, soon became not merely an agricultural colony, but one of the most thriving commercial emporiums in the West Indies. Shortly after the Dutch occupation, a vessel arrived at Tobago with colonists from Courland, James the first of England having previously granted Tobago to his godson the Duke of Courland. Nearly 100 families were thus landed on one of the most beautiful parts of the island termed Courland Bay; in a few days the contending colonists came to blows, but the belligerents at length agreed to leave

* Some say that the Courlanders arrived on the north coast of Tobago in 1648.

each other quiet until their respective governments at home should decide to whom the island belonged. The Courlanders were neglected, partly owing to the Duke being imprisoned and deprived of his territories by the King of Sweden, while the Lampsins strongly reinforced their friends; the result was that, in 1659, the latter forced the Courlanders to relinquish Fort James, which they had built in Courland Bay. The efforts of the Duke of Courland to recover Tobago, on the restitution of his states, were ineffectual, notwithstanding the manifesto of Charles II. in his favour, 17th of November, 1664, when declaring war against Holland;—the Lampsins therefore remained in peaceable possession for some years. No mention was made of Tobago at the treaty of Breda; and during the interval of the first and second war between England and Holland, the Governor, Hubert de Beveren, and the colonists, amounting to 1200, placed Forts James and Lampsinberg in a good state of defence, while the commerce and cultivation of the island rapidly increased.

Nevertheless Tobago was shortly after plundered and sacked by Sir Tobias Bridges, at the head of the Barbadian privateers, and subsequently the Dutch having declared war against the French, the Duke D'Estrées attacked and defeated Admiral Binkes, in Scarborough Bay, and pillaged the island. Four months after D'Estrées again appeared off Fort Lampsins, landed his infantry, and attacked Binkes in the fortress, who, after a gallant defence was, together with a great part of his little garrison, blown up by the explosion of a powder magazine, and on the 24th Dec. 1677, the brave and industrious Hollanders were compelled to abandon a colony which they had commenced under such favourable auspices in 1654; such are the wretched effects of desolating wars for personal aggrandizement. In 1678 the Duke of Courland renewed his pretensions, and for many years strenuous, but unavailing efforts were made to induce colonists to settle in the island. In 1737 the house of Kettler, sovereigns of Courland, being extinct by the death of Ferdinand, son of James, England claimed the reversion of

Tobago. In 1748, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it was stipulated that St. Lucia should belong to France, and that Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent, and Dominica should be considered as neutral islands, that the subjects of all European powers should have the right to establish themselves, and carry on commerce in and with those islands, but that none of the contracting parties should place garrisons in them.*

At the peace of 1763, Louis XV. ceded Tobago in perpetuity to England, and on the 20th of May 1765 a commission was appointed for granting lands on the island. The prosperity of the island dates from this period, large capitals were invested by enterprizing British colonists, and agriculture and commerce rapidly progressed; but the miseries of war had not yet terminated; during our contest with North America, in 1781, Tobago was captured by the Marquis de Bouillié, and ceded to France by the treaty of Versailles in 1783. While Tobago remained in the possession of France, a few French settlers established themselves in the island, and on the breaking out of hostilities between England and France, General Cuyler, in March 1793, at the head of 2,000 men, took possession of the island for Great Britain, in whose possession it has ever since remained.

Physical Aspect. Tobago has been termed the '*Melancholy Isle*,' because when viewed from the N. it seems to be only a mass of lofty, gloomy, mountains, with black precipices, descending abruptly to the sea; on a nearer approach the island exhibits a very irregular aspect; it is principally composed of conical hills of basaltic formation, and of ridges which descend from the interior, (where they rise in a distinct manner from a common base or dorsal ridge 1,800 feet high, and running twenty miles out of the thirty-two that the island

* Whether Tobago was then inhabited or not, it is hard to say. The chroniclers of the island assert, that, in 1757, the ship *Stirling Castle* touched at Tobago; and on Mr. Thompson, a midshipman, landing, he found an old French hermit on the island, who had been living alone on it for twenty-one years.

is long), toward the sea, terminating sometimes in abrupt precipices; the ravines are deep and narrow, and end generally in small alluvial plains. The N. W. part is the least mountainous, terminating in the N. in abrupt precipices, with the dark island of little Tobago and the dangerous rocks called St. Giles's. The S. terminates in broken plains and low lands, the whole aspect, like Trinidad, being calm and magnificent, with occasional beautiful mounds of isolated hills, so close that few levels for marsh or swamps present themselves, the delightful vales every where exhibiting the effects of a rotatory and undulating motion of vast currents of water, and forming with the contiguous mountains truly picturesque scenery. The island is well watered by rivulets and streams, arising in the interior, and passing over the low lands to the coast, where they are occasionally obstructed, which however a little attention would prevent.

Scarborough, the principal town, is situate on the S. W. side of Tobago along the sea shore, (at the base of Fort George Hill), and extends, with little uniformity, easterly towards the Fort, the distance from the latter place being upwards of half a mile. On the S. and S. W. the descent to the sea is gradual, and at the base of the hill approaching the town are several scattered country houses. Fort George Hill (the road to which is steep and towards the W.), rises to the height of four hundred and twenty-two feet, of a conical shape, and crowned by 'Fort King George,' the chief military station in the island. On the windward side are numerous excellent bays, and on the northward is situate 'Man-of-War Bay,' capacious, safe, and adapted to the largest ships. At Courland Bay (on the N. side, six miles from Fort King George), which approaches the leeward extremity, the hills, covered with rich forests, are bolder and more abrupt than on the S. side, and consequently the cultivation more scattered; the 'Richmond,' a large river, passes through the district. Extending from Courland to Sandy Point, on the S. side are several estates on the low lands in good cultivation, owing to the number of

rivulets watering the shore. Sandy Point district (or as it may be termed Garden), forms the western extremity of the island, and is the only level land of any extent in Tobago. The eastern district is chiefly composed of high mountains, clothed with noble trees, and but thinly cultivated.

Man of War, Courland, Sandy Point and King Bays, are adapted to the largest sized ships; Tyrrels, Bloody, Mangrove, Englishman's, and Castara's Bays have good anchorage for vessels up to 150 tons burthen; Halifax Bay admits vessels of 250 tons—but a shoal at the entrance requires a pilot.

Geology. On a complete view of the island, as compared with the adjacent continent, the observer is impressed with the belief that it formed, at some distant day, a bold promontory of main land, from which it has been violently dissevered. There is, in fact, a general physiognomical resemblance between Tobago and Trinidad, except that there are not seen those large blocks of hyaline quartz in the former that are found almost every where in the latter, on the summits of mountains as well as on the plains; the rounded pebbles found in the beds of rivers are generally of quartz or freestone, some of hyaline quartz, others of amphiobolic schistus, &c. Neither sulphur nor carbonate of lime have been seen. The hill above Scarborough appears to be a bed of basalt and schistus rock, with a loose and heavy super-stratum. The soil is a rich dark mould, and resembles (particularly in the E. part) that of its neighbouring isle, with the advantage of the vegetative earth being deeper on the hills of Tobago.

Climate,—though moist, by being impregnated with saline particles, is not at all unhealthy, particularly if proper attention were paid to preventing the exits of the mountain streams. The rainy season begins in June, and gradually becomes heavy until September, the violence of the rains then abate, showers continuing, at intervals, to the end of December or beginning of January, when the season termed 'croptime' begins. The island is out of the usual range of hurricanes—the winds are S.E. and S. during the greater part of the year;

in December and January they prevail from the N.—often very strong and cold. So decidedly salubrious are the high lands of the interior, that Dr. Lloyd, the principal medical officer, reported to Sir James M'Gregor* in 1827, that 'on some of the estates in the interior, no European resident had been buried for upwards of *ten years*'!

Tides, Winds and Sailing Directions. The currents round the island are very uncertain, especially in the Trinidad channel. At new and full moon the rise of the tide is four feet. The N. E. trade blows all the year about the island. The island being seen towards evening, the mariner cautious of approaching, should stand under easy sail to the southward, as the current sets to the N. W.; coming from the E. steer for the S. coast, and keep well to the southward to stem the N. W. current, which always sets round the lesser Tobago. On entering any of the bays to leeward, ships may approach quite close to St. Giles's rock. There is nothing to fear at the S. W. Bay of Courland but rocks above water, except the Chesterfield rock. Tobago is free from hurricanes, though Grenada, the most southward of the Antilles, and only thirty leagues from the continent, is as much under the influence of squalls as the other Antilles.

Vegetable Kingdom. Almost every kind of plant that grows on the Antilles flourishes at Tobago—and also, in common with Trinidad, the greater part of those which are cultivated in Guyana and Cumana. The orange, lemon, guava, pomegranate, fig and grape are in perfection; the two latter yield fruit twice a year, (if pruned three weeks after the fruit has been gathered) and all the culinary plants of Europe arrive at perfection. The cinnamon and pimento (some say also the nutmeg) trees grow wild in different parts of the island—and the cotton of Tobago is of excellent quality.

* Through the kindness of Sir James, I have been enabled to render my labours more beneficial to the empire by the facile access, which the head of the Army Medical Department most politely granted me, to refer to the valuable topographical reports, furnished by the medical officers of the army, from our different colonies.

Zoology. Although the vegetation of Tobago and Trinidad is similar, some quadrupeds and birds are found in the latter which do not exist in the former, and *vice versa*; the *Katraka*, for instance, a very singular species of pheasant, although taken from Tobago to Trinidad and let loose, has not multiplied there; while the *Hoccos* of Trinidad are in a similar position with regard to Tobago; and although nearly all the quadrupeds of the immense region between the Amazons river and the isthmus of Panama, are to be found at Trinidad, very few of them are to be seen at Tobago; even the small deer of Guyana, so plentiful at Trinidad, do not exist here. The indigenous birds are—varieties of wild ducks, pigeons, blackbirds (yellow and black) white woodcocks, thrushes, herons, pouched pelicans, &c. The eagles of the Orinoco, and flamingoes, frequent the coasts. Three varieties of humming birds exist, and a small bird of the size of a sparrow, with magnificent plumage; the head, neck and upper part of the body is of a most brilliant red—the feathers of the wings and tail of a deep purple above and a sky blue underneath, and the breast and belly of an azure hue. A great variety of shell-fish is found on the coast, which is frequented by sea-cows and turtles in abundance.

Population. Of the yearly increase or decrease of the inhabitants I can find no connected details;* the whites are estimated at 450; the free coloured, males 477, females 686; the following Table shews the numbers, increase and decrease, of the slave population from 1819 to 1832.

* Since the text was written I have found the following statements of early population; it would appear from this that the whites have not augmented of late. In 1776 the population was 2,397 white, 1,050 free negroes, and 10,752 slaves; in 1787, whites, 1,397; free coloured, 1,050; slaves, 10,539; and the import of slaves, in a medium of four years, 1,400; in 1805, whites, 900; coloured people, 700; slaves, 14,883.

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Decrease by Manumission.	
				Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1819 ..	7,633	7,837	15,470						
1820 ..	7,384	7,679	15,063	141	163	416	384	1	5
1821 ..	7,107	7,474	14,521	178	155	370	306	1	2
1822 ..	6,952	7,363	14,315	159	158	367	303	10	12
1823 ..	6,812	7,263	14,074	151	167	232	211	5	16
1824 ..	6,558	7,098	13,656	166	157	371	290	9	14
1825 ..	6,532	7,151	13,683	154	157	213	191	4	2
1826 ..	6,391	7,034	13,428	168	160	362	328	7	10
1827 ..	6,138	6,861	12,999	170	163	213	185	3	7
1828 ..	6,088	6,807	12,895	178	191	289	249	4	7
1829 ..	5,966	6,757	12,723	178	196	283	248	2	6
1830 ..	5,872	6,614	12,556	165	155	288	220	4	12
1831 ..	5,769	6,601	12,370	170	171	274	241	4	11
1832 ..	5,603	6,488	12,091	145	161	298	253	13	21

COMMERCE.—EXPORTS. The principal exports are sugar, molasses and rum—of which there were exported in 1831—sugar, 8,453 hogsheads; molasses, 183 puncheons; rum, 5,171 ditto. The value of the trade of the island, and the shipping employed for the same year was—

IMPORTS. VALUE IN STERLING.					EXPORTS. VALUE IN STERLING.			
1831	From Great Britain.	From British Colonies.	From Foreign States.	Total Value.	To Great Britain.	To British Colonies.	To Foreign States.	Total Value.
£.	54,530	57,961	4,780	117,241	144,384	15,686	220	160,290
	Ships Inwards.				Ships Outwards.			
Tons.	7,127	6,647	1,478	15,252	7,385	7,377	582	15,344

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The gross receipts of the island revenue for 1831 was £9,992, and the expenses of the civil establishment £7,388.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT. Tobago is ruled by a Governor, Council and House of Assembly, whose powers and authority are similar to those of Jamaica, &c.

CHAPTER V.

GRENADA.

ITS LOCALITY — PHYSICAL ASPECT — MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, AND LAKES — GEOLOGY — VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS — POPULATION — COMMERCE — REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE — GOVERNMENT, &c.

LOCALITY. Grenada, the most southerly of the Antilles, and most lovely of our West India isles, is situate between the parallels of 12.20 and 11.58 N. Lat. and 61.20 and 61.35 W. Long., nearly equi-distant from Tobago (60 miles) and the nearest point of the continent of South America; its greatest length, N. and S. about twenty-five miles, (and at either extremity narrowing to a point)—in its greatest breadth 12, in circumference 50, miles, and containing about 80,000 acres.

GENERAL HISTORY. Christopher Columbus, during his third adventurous voyage in 1498, discovered Grenada, and found it fully occupied by a warlike race, (the Charibs) among whom the Spaniards never attempted to form a settlement, and who remained for a century after in peaceable possession of their native home. In 1650 the French Governor of Martinique, Du Parquet,* collected 200 hardy adventurers, for the purpose of seizing on the island, which, from the manly character of the natives, was considered an enterprize of difficulty and danger.

This expedition,† as related by Father du Tertre, exhibits a monstrous mixture of fanatacism and knavery. The commanders administered the holy sacrament, in the most solemn manner, to all the soldiers on their embarkation, and again on their landing—and Du Parquet, causing a cross to be erected,

* Du Pacquet subsequently sold the island to Count Cerillac for 30,000 crowns.

† I am indebted to the Grenada Almanac for many details relative to this isle.

compelled them to kneel down before it, and join in devout prayer to Almighty God for the success of their enterprize.

The natives received and entertained the French with the utmost kindness and cordiality, pretending to open a treaty with the chiefs of the Charibs for the purchase of the country. The latter gave the natives "*some knives and hatchets, and a large quantity of glass beads, besides two bottles of brandy for the chief himself;*" and then asserted that the island was fairly ceded to the French nation, by the natives themselves, in lawful purchase!

Du Parquet thus established a colony in Grenada, built a fort for its protection, and left the government of the island to a kinsman, named Le Compte. Within eight months after this period we find a war of extermination carried on by the French against the Charibs. Du Parquet sent a reinforcement of 300 men from Martinique, with orders to extirpate the natives altogether; but Le Compte seems not to have wanted any incitement to acts of barbarity; for Du Tertre admits that he had already proceeded to murder, without mercy, every Charib that fell into his hands—not sparing even the women and children.

The manner in which the unfortunate aborigines were destroyed may be judged of by a circumstance which Father Du Tertre relates of *one* expedition. 'Forty of the Charaibes were massacred on the spot. About forty others, who had escaped the sword, ran towards a precipice, from whence they cast themselves headlong into the sea, and miserably perished. A beautiful girl, of twelve or thirteen years of age, who was taken alive, became the object of dispute between two of our officers, each of them claiming her as his prize; a third coming up, put an end to the contest, by shooting the girl through the head. The place from which these barbarians threw themselves into the sea, has been called ever since *le Morne de Sauteurs*, (Leapers' Hill.) Our people, having lost but one man in the expedition, proceeded in the next place to set fire to the cottages, and root up the provisions of the savages—and having destroyed or taken

away every thing belonging to them, returned *in high spirits.*' No wonder that the whole native population was soon extirpated.

It may well be imagined that cultivation made but little progress. So late as 1700 the island contained no more than 251 whites and 525 blacks, who were employed on three plantations of sugar and fifty-two of indigo.

After the peace of Utrecht, the government of France began to turn its attention towards her West India possessions. Grenada, however, for many years, partook less of its care than the rest. By a smuggling intercourse with the Dutch, the Grenadians changed their circumstances for the better—increased their numbers—and a great part of the country was settled. In 1762 Grenada and the Grenadines are said to have yielded annually, in clayed and muscovado sugar, a quantity equal to about 11,000 hogsheads of muscovado of fifteen cwt. each, and about 27,000 pounds of indigo.

Grenada surrendered on capitulation in February, 1762, and, with its dependencies, was finally ceded to Great Britain, by the definitive treaty of Paris, on the 10th of February, 1763—St. Lucia being restored at the same time to France. The chief stipulations in favour of the inhabitants, as well by the treaty as by the articles of capitulation, were these:—First, That as they would become, by their surrender, subjects of Great Britain, they should enjoy their properties and privileges, and pay taxes, *in like manner as the rest of His Majesty's subjects of the other British Leeward Islands.* Secondly, With respect to religion, they were put on the same footing as the inhabitants of Canada—viz. liberty was given them to exercise it according to the rites of the Romish Church, *as far as the laws of Great Britain permitted.* Thirdly, Such of the inhabitants of Grenada as chose to quit the island, should have liberty to do so, and eighteen months allowed them to dispose of their effects.

A Legislative Assembly was granted by England, and the Grenadians resisted the imposition of the 4½ per cent.

duties. The Crown, however, persisting in its claim, and the inhabitants in opposing it, issue was joined before the judges of the Court of King's Bench in England. The case was elaborately argued in Westminster-hall four several times; and in Michaelmas Term, 1774, Lord Chief Justice Mansfield pronounced judgment *against the Crown.* The consequence was, that the duty in question was abolished not only in Grenada but also in Dominica, St. Vincent's and Tobago. [It should have been abolished in all the islands.]

On the 2d of July, 1797, a French armament, consisting of a fleet of twenty-five ships of the line, ten frigates and 5,000 troops, under the command of the Count D'Estaing, appeared off the harbour and town of St. George: the whole force of the island was composed of ninety men of the 48th regiment, 300 militia of the island, and 150 seamen from the merchant ships; and its fortifications consisted chiefly of an entrenchment, which had been hastily thrown up round the summit of Hospital-hill. This entrenchment the Count D'Estaing invested the next day, at the head of 3,000 of his best forces, which he led up in three columns, and, after a desperate conflict and the loss of 300 men carried the lines. Never did so small a body of men make a nobler defence against such inequality of numbers, The Governor (Lord Macartney) and the remains of his little garrison immediately retired into the old fort at the mouth of the harbour, which, however, was wholly untenable, being commanded by the Hospital-hill battery, the guns of which, having been most unfortunately left unspiked, were now turned against them. At day break the French opened a battery of two twenty-four pounders against the walls of the old fort. In this situation, the Governor and inhabitants had no alternative but an unconditional surrender; and the Count d'Estaing became master of the island.

Grenada and the Grenadines were restored to Great Britain, with all the other captured islands in the West Indies, (Tobago excepted) by the general pacification which took place in 1783. In 1795 an insurrection, fermented it

was said by the French Revolutionists, broke out March 1795, which was not finally terminated until July 1796. During the continuance of the disturbance the greatest distress prevailed, and the most horrid murders were perpetrated by the infatuated rebels; wherever they appeared devastation followed them; and, from the direful effects of their cruelty and rapine Grenada has never recovered the flourishing state which it had previously enjoyed.*

PHYSICAL ASPECT. The general aspect of Grenada is extremely lovely, but mountainous and picturesque; the interior and N. W. coast consist of successive piles of conical hills or

* For the sake of reference and as historical data I give, wherever I find it practicable, a list of the chief authorities in each settlement, with the dates of their period of office.

A list of Governors, Lieut.-Governors, &c. who have held the Government of Grenada, since the cession of the Colony to Great Britain, in the year 1763:—

Brig.-Gen. Robert Melville, Capt.-Gen. Commander-in-Chief in and over the southern Charibbee Islands of Grenada, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago, 1764; Ulysses Fitzmaurice, Sen. Lieut.-Governor of St. Vincent, 1768; Brig.-Gen. R. Melville, again, 1770; F. Corsar, Esq. President, 1771; U. Fitzmaurice, Lieut.-Gov. of St. Vincent, again, 1771; Brig.-Gen. W. Leybourne, Gov. S. C. Islands, 1771; F. Corsar, Esq. President again, 1775; W. Young, Lieut.-Gov. Tobago, 1775; Sir G. (afterwards Lord) Macartney, K. B. Gov. 1776; Lt.-Gen. E. Matthew, Gov. 1784; W. Lucas, Esq. Pres. 1785; S. Williams, Esq. Pres. 1787; J. Campbell, Esq. Pres. 1788; S. Williams, Esq. again Pres. 1789 to 1793; N. Home, Esq. Lieut.-Gov. 1793; K. M'Kenzie, Esq. Pres. 1795; S. Williams, Esq. again Pres. 1795; A. Houstoun, Esq. Lt.-Gov. 1796; Col. C. Green, Gov. 1797; S. Mitchell, Esq. Pres. 1798; Rev. S. Dent, Pres. 1801; G. V. Hobart, Esq. Lt.-Gov. 1802; Rev. S. Dent, again Pres. 1802; Maj.-Gen. W. D. M'Lean Clephane, Lt.-Gov. 1803; Rev. S. Dent, again Pres. 1803; A. C. Adye, Esq. Pres. 1804; Brig.-Gen. F. Maitland, Gov. 1805; J. Harvey, Esq. Pres. 1807; A. C. Adye, Esq. again Pres. 1808 to 1809; Major-Gen. F. Maitland, Gov. 1810; A. C. Adye, Esq. again Pres. 1810 to 1811; Col. G. R. Ainslie, Vice-Gov. 1812; J. Harvey, Esq. Pres. 1813; Maj.-Gen. Sir C. Shipley, Gov. 1813 to 1815; G. Paterson, Esq. Pres. 1815; Maj.-Gen. Phineas Riall, Gov. 1816; A. Houstoun, Esq. Pres. 1817 to 1819; Maj.-Gen. P. Riall, (resumed) Gov. 1821; G. Paterson, Esq. Pres. 1821 to 1823; Sir J. Campbell, K. C. B. Gov. 1826 to 1831; A. Houstoun, Esq. Pres. 1829; F. Palmer, Esq. Pres. 1831.

continuous ridges, rounded in their outline, and covered with vast forest trees and brush wood; from N. to S. the island is traversed by one continued though irregular range, rising in some places to a very considerable elevation, often to 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, but everywhere accessible. From this chain, but particularly from one very remarkable and magnificent spot in the centre of the island, N. E. of St. George's, called the *Grand-Etang*, numerous small rivers and streamlets have their source irrigating the country in every direction. One of the most prominent features in this wild romantic district is Mount St. Catherine (Morne Michel) which, clothed with a splendid vegetation, towers to an altitude of 3,200 feet above the ocean level! Several mountain ridges extend from the great chain towards the windward or S. E. side, forming rich and picturesque vallies, but nearly the whole of the windward coast from the S. termination of the range of mountains at Point Calivigny, about five miles from St. George, till it reaches the leeward boundary, looses the rugged and precipitous features and deep bold shore (as seen on the leeward side), and consists of a level alluvial plain with numerous coral reefs.

Rivers and Lakes. The rivers, as before observed, are numerous, but not large; the principal are those of Great Bucolet, Duguisne, and Antoine on the windward, and St. John's and Beau Sejour, on the leeward. Several hot chalybeate and sulphurous springs exist, the former being the most numerous; one of these* is very remarkable for its heat and strong metallic impregnation; the mercury rises to 86. and since the earthquake, of 1825, both the temperature and impregnation have been very sensibly increased. A hot spring in St. Andrew's parish emits considerable quantities of carbonic acid gas, possessing analogous qualities to the famous *grotto del cane*; it contains iron and lime, and possesses a strong petrifactive quality. Some of the warm sulphurous springs in the hilly parishes of St. Mark and St. John's are hot enough to boil an egg. Near the centre of the

* At Annandale in St. George's parish.

island, at an elevation of 1,740 feet, amidst the mountain scenery, is situate the *Grand Etang*, an almost perfectly circular fresh water lake, two miles and a half in circumference, and fourteen feet deep, with a bottom composed of a superstrature of soft mud, arising from decayed vegetable substances, (especially Loti, which grow in great profusion around the margin, over a light cold argillaceous bed). Around this singular lake is a superb sylvan amphitheatre of mountains, clothed in all the verdant grandeur of a tropical forest. Another lake (Antoine) of nearly similar size, (covering sixty English acres), and form, is situate on the E. coast only half a mile from the sea, and but forty three feet above its level. It is about fifty feet in depth, having no communication with the sea, constantly increasing towards the centre, in the shape of an inverted hollow cone, and increasing in size for the last sixty years: from these circumstances, and the formation of rocks, and the quantity of scoriæ found near its brink, there is every reason to suppose it the crater of an exhausted volcano. The inhabitants state that there are subterraneous communications between this lake and different parts of the island, and that during the great eruption of the Souffriere in St. Vincents, in 1812, the waters of Lake Antoine were not only in continual agitation and undulation, but that considerable quantities of lava and sulphur were thrown upon the surface of the water from beneath. On the S. shore, near Point Salines, there are extensive salt ponds.

Division. This island is divided into six parishes or districts,* the principal whereof *(St. George,)* contains the capital of that name, and the fortifications and military posts of Richmond Hill, Fort King George, Hospital Hill, and Cardigan Heights; it is also the chief sea-port, the residence of the Governor, and the station of the Courts of Judicature, &c. The district is situate on the S. and W. part of the

* Sts. Patrick, Andrew, John, Mark, David and George. The three first named are the least mountainous, and the most productive in sugar, cocoa and coffee. St. John and Mark are mountainous; and the two latter named rather less so.

island, embracing twenty-six square miles, and extending along the King's high road, eleven miles, and twenty-eight chains from the river Douce to the river Chemin. It has twenty-eight sugar estates, twenty coffee settlements, and eight coffee plantations. The population of the capital and parish is about 10,000. *St. David's* lies towards the S. E., and forms several points and some bays capable of receiving small craft; it extends from the river Chemin to the river Crochu, nine miles and fifty chains along the King's high road, and contains twelve sugar and several provision estates. *St. Andrew's*, situate on the E. side, extends from the river Crochu to the river Antoine, eleven miles and sixty-six chains along the high road, it comprises the town and port of Grenville, formerly called La Baye, and contains thirty-seven sugar plantations, and eight coffee and cocoa settlements. *St. Patrick*, situate on the N. E., containing sixteen square miles, extends nine miles and forty-four chains along the high road from the river Antoine to the river Duguesne. In this parish is the town of St. Patrick, formerly, and now known by the name of Sauteurs; it contains twenty-six of the richest sugar plantations in the island. *St. Mark*, the smallest and least considerable in the island, is situate on the N. W. extending four miles and forty-three chains along the high road, from the river Duguesne to the river Maran, which separates it on the S. side from the parish of St. John. *St. John's*, on the W. side, extends from the river Maran, to the river Douce, six miles and thirty-six chains; Charlotte town is situate in this parish, which is the next in magnitude and population to the town of St. George. *It contains sixteen sugar estates, and eleven cocoa and coffee settlements. St. George*, the capital, is situate within an amphitheatre of hills,* with a good harbour in front. The houses are well and tastefully built of stone or brick, with sashed windows and tiled

* Were it not for the military works on Richmond Hill, which are seen at a great distance, it would be difficult to ascertain from the sea where George town and harbour are placed, but on approaching the base of the fortified hills an opening is discerned into a spacious and excellent harbour.

roofs, with the streets well ventilated, and a spacious handsome square in the centre, and the shops equal to any in Oxford-street. The town is divided into upper and lower,* the latter, or carinage,† being principally occupied with stores, ship-yards, and wharfs. The population consists of 4,000, of whom 320 are whites and 2,000 free coloured. A recent visitor says that Grenada with its azure sky, cloud capped mountains, and verdant slopes, well merits to be entitled the gem of the ocean. A town of white and gay looking houses, occupies a rocky peninsula, projecting into a clear bay; the spire of a church rises on the isthmus, and Fort George, and Hospital Fort, with flag staffs, on which are displayed waving signals, look down on the harbour from their commanding heights. Behind a point, numerous vessels are seen, sheltered from every wind. The fortifications of Richmond heights, far above and beyond the town, occupy the back ground in the picture. In the country, on the slopes of the hills, are orange groves and palm trees, plantations and cultivated fields, mound and dale, through which numerous streams are constantly rushing to the sea.

The dependencies of Grenada are, the island of Carriacou, and such of the small islands called Grenadines,‡ as lay between it and Grenada. Carriacou constitutes a parish, containing, according to estimate, 6,913 acres of land; it is

* The streets leading from the one to the other are extremely rugged and steep. *Constitution Hill*, leading to the market-place, is at an angle not far removed from the perpendicular.

† The carinage of Grenada is one of the best that can be conceived both for the convenience and securing of shipping; it is completely land-locked; there is a sufficient depth of water and good holding-ground; it is protected by the batteries on shore, and it is exempt from hurricanes. The harbour is said to be capable of containing 1,000 ships, of 350 tons each, secure from storms.

‡ These are a cluster of isles, of more or less extent, between St. Vincent and Grenada; the largest are Becquia, Canuan, Urion and Carriacou: the last named alone dependent on Grenada; many are inhabited, and several well cultivated, producing small quantities of sugar, rum, molasses, cotton, fruits, vegetables, poultry, live stock, &c. in great abundance.

about nineteen miles in circumference. In the town of Hillsborough is a church and rectory. The island is, in general, fertile, and well cultivated; and the successful mode of the management of slaves is amply manifested in their constant increase. Cotton was formerly the chief article of cultivation, and about 1,000,000 lb. was annually exported. Eight of the principal estates are now cultivated in sugar; and the average produce of that article in a good season, is upwards 2,000,000 lbs. The island is however greatly exposed to suffer from droughts, which mars the best efforts of industry. The chief cause of this calamity is supposed to be the want of wood, which has gradually become exhausted, without proper means having been used to renew it by planting. A society has lately been established for the sole purpose of remedying this defect; and it is to be hoped, that a few years will reward their exertions, by producing more regularity in the seasons.

Geology. The geology of the island * is very complicated and irregular; the mountains, and different parts of the low lands, so far as they have been examined, consist of strata, or rather mingled portions of red and grey sand-stone, gray-wacke—irregular alternations of hornblende, hard argillaceous schist, and a variety of gneis. In various spots (as at Richmond Hill) an imperfect species of granite, or nodules of the same, interbedded in a coarse loose red sand-stone are frequently met with, and sometimes in argillaceous schist; a very coarse porphyry is also sometimes seen; immediately behind Richmond Hill, on the estate of Mount Parnassus, limestone is found, and quarry was at one time was worked for agricultural purposes). Basaltic rocks are met with on the N. W. coast, and it is said magnesian limestone also. At Point Salines (the extremity of the island) fullers-earth, of the very finest quality, is procurable in abundance; and at *La Fortune*, in the parish of St. Patrick, numerous specimens of the natural magnet; sulphur, in its native state, but not crystallized, is almost every where met with. In fine, it may be said that

* According to Dr. Simpson in his Report to the Army Medical Board.

the great mass of mountains consist of sandstone,* greywacké, hornblende, and argillaceous schist, but the stratification is so diversified, and the face of the country so rugged and abrupt, as to bid defiance to any regular definition.

In one place they are horizontal, in another vertical, and in almost all they are suddenly and abruptly intersected by each other—appearing as if they had been separated and again mingled together by some great convulsion of nature. One remarkable cliff on the river St. John, about one mile and a half from St. George's, presents a curious arrangement, which Dr. Simpson is inclined to ascribe to volcanic origin; immediately under the soil is a stratum of pudding stone—to that succeeds one of iron pyrites (exhibiting regular prisms), then one of alluvial formation, and lastly one of brown sandstone; in some of the less elevated situations, the strata are extremely thin, numerous, and more regular; in one cliff, near Government House, (not more than twenty-five feet high,) are seen running from S.E. to N.W., at a very obtuse angle with the horizon, at least sixty distinct strata of white, grey and brown sand-stone, alternating with loose sand and gravel, and near the surface mixed with alluvial soil. No shells are found in any of these formations ;† but the red sand-stone of *Grand Mal* and *Callevigny*, in the parish of St. George (which is much used for building), is thickly studded with beautiful crystals of carburet of iron; and in the Callevigny sand-stone vegetable remains, such as the leaves and stalks of trees, are not uncommon. The soil varies with the external features of the country; in the low lands, consisting of rich black mould on a substratum of light-coloured clay, while in the high and central situations the soil is of a dingy red or brick colour.

CLIMATE. Locality, as may be supposed, influences materially the temperature and health of Grenada; 82 F. may be

* The bed of the sea on the S. W. point of the island is composed of phosphate of lime or a species of coralline, but its effects are not observable on the surface of the water.

† Neither the sandstone, nor the very imperfect species of granite found effervesce with acids.

considered the medium heat throughout the year in the *low* country; but in the *high* lands the mercury, which at St. George, stands at 86, will be ten degrees lower at the Grand Etang at the same moment. The quantity of rain which falls is very considerable, and throughout the year showers are felt: hurricanes are comparatively mild and infrequent, but earthquakes, or shocks, are sometimes felt. The climate is much improved, in common with the whole of the West Indies of late years. (For yearly range of thermometer vide St. Vincent's).

ANIMAL KINGDOM. As in all the West India Islands, the animals of Grenada are few and uninteresting to the naturalist. It is a matter of dispute whether even the monkey be a native; black snakes are common, but almost harmless; scorpions and centipedes abound, but their bite is mild and little regarded; the principal annoyance is from that species of ant called *formica omnivora;* it is recorded in the island that at a former period these minute creatures threatened the destruction of the colony; they were in such myriads as to form bridges of each other's bodies across the largest streams, and to extinguish the fires kindled in the fields for their destruction; a reward of £20,000. was offered in vain by the legislature for any plan that would ensure their destruction; his terrible (Egyptian) plague, after baffling human invention for its suppression, was only finally destroyed by the hurricane in 1780.* The Ornithology of Grenada is similar

* This extraordinary plague was termed the sugar ant, and described by Sir Hans Sloane as the *formica fusca minima antennis longissimis.* They are of an ordinary size, a slender shape, a dark red colour, remarkable for the quickness of their motions; but are distinguished from any other species, chiefly by the sharp acid taste which they yield when applied to the tongue, and the strong sulphurous smell which they emit when rubbed together between the palms of the hands. Their numbers have often been so immense as to cover the roads for the space of several miles; and so crowded in many places that the prints of the horses' feet were distinctly marked amongst them till filled by the surrounding multitudes; they were never seen to consume or carry off any vegetable substance whatever, but always laid hold of any dead insect or animal substance that came in their way. Every kind of cold victuals, all species of vermin, particu-

to that of the other islands, but with rather less numerous varieties of birds.

The rivers, or rivulets, are plentifully supplied with fish,—such as snapper, mullet, cray-fish, eels, pike, &c.*

Vegetable Kingdom. The descriptions given in the Guyana and Jamaica Chapters answers for Grenada, and the fruits and vegetables,† which for their seasons will be found

larly rats, and even the sores of the negroes were exposed to their attacks. But they were decidedly injurious by constructing their nests among the roots of the lime, lemon, orange trees and sugar canes, and so obstructing their growth as to render the plants sickly and unproductive. A premium of £20,000 from the public treasury was offered to the discoverer of any effectual method of destroying them, and the principal means employed were poison and fire. By mixing arsenic and corrosive sublimate with animal substances, myriads were destroyed; and the slightest tasting of the poison rendered them so outrageous as to devour one another. Lines of red-hot charcoal were laid in their way, to which they crowded in such numbers as to extinguish it with their bodies; and holes full of fire were dug in the cane grounds, which were soon extinguished by heaps of dead. But while the nests remained undisturbed, new progenies appeared as numerous as ever, and the only effectual check which they received was from the destructive hurricane of 1780, which, by tearing up altogether, or so loosening the roots where they nestled as to admit the rain, almost extirpated the whole race, and pointed out the frequent digging up and consuming by fire these stools and roots in which they take refuge, as the best preventative of their future increase.

* The prices of provisions established by the magistrates, and settled by the Market Act, in 1831 was—beef, prime pieces, per lb. 2*s*., all others, do., 1*s*. 9*d*.; veal, ditto, 2*s*.; goat or kid, ditto, 1*s*. 9*d*.; turtle, ditto, 1*s*. 3*d*.; hawksbill, ditto, 1*s*. 9*d*.; fish, large, ditto, 1*s*.; jacks, three to the lb. 9*d*.; ditto small and sprats, 6*d*.; milk, pure, per quart, 1*s*. These are currency prices (vide Monetary System).

† In 1700, more than twenty years after the sovereignty had been vested in the crown of France, there were found on the whole island only sixty-four horses, 569 horned cattle, three plantations of sugar, and fifty-two of indigo. About fourteen years afterwards, however, an active commercial intercourse was opened with the island of Martinique, cultivation was rapidly extended, and notwithstanding the interruption which these improvements sustained by the war in 1744, Grenada was found in 1753 to contain 2,298 horses or mules, 2,556 horned cattle, 3,278 sheep, 902 goats, 331 hogs, 83 sugar plantations, &c.; and in 1762, when it surrendered to

under St, Vincents equally applicable to the island under consideration. The principal vegetable staples are sugar, cocoa, coffee and cotton;* and the following return shews the Produce made in Grenada and the Grenadines in 1830.

Parishes and Island.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Cotton.
	lbs.	Gallons.	Gallons.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
Parish of St. George....	3,179,916	122,422	56,382	9,839	20,022	7,139
——— Mark's	958,276	34,533	11,784	5,287	125,454	
——— John	913,247	29,450	7,880	7,852	148,225	
——— Patrick....	6,214,350	278,891	3,997	500		600
——— Andrew's..	6,756,021	303,592	24,955	1,500	39,670	
——— David	1,853,443	114,550	6,368	1,144	4,534	
Island of Carriacou	2,225,700	9,996	144,313			90,055
Total..	22,100,953	890,434	255,679	26,122	337,903	97,804

Population. We have already seen how the unoffending native inhabitants were destroyed. In 1700 there were but 151 whites, 53 blacks, or mulattoes, and 525 slaves. In 1753 there were 1262 whites, 175 free negroes, and 11,991 slaves; the next data shews that, in 1827, the island contained 29,168 mouths, namely, of free whites, 834, free blacks and coloured, 3,892—Total, 4,726; slaves agricultural, 21,652, slaves domestics and artizans, 2,790—Total, 24,442. The following return shews

the British arms, it is said to have yielded annually, together with its dependencies, the Grenadines, a quantity of clay and muscavado sugar, equal to 11,000 hogsheads, of fifteen cwt. each, and 27,000 lbs. of indigo.

* Dr. Hancock informs me that he found a very singular animal flower, (or Zoophyte,) inhabiting the side of the rocky wall that lines the carinage, next to the town, about two feet below the surface of the water, and consisting of a worm encased in a cylindric tube, fastened at the end to the rock, and throwing out its rays or tentacula at the other or outward end; the rays when extended standing in a sort of funnel shape; the flower bearing an exact resemblance to the purple passifloras or granadilla (passion flower); when fully expanded, this flower is peculiarly sensitive of the approach of any thing towards it, and it is next to impossible to obtain one in that state, as it is immediately retracted, (something in the manner of a snail when its horns are touched) even on the undulation of the water, within its tubular shell. Whether this shell is separable from the rock at the will of the inmate, has not yet been thoroughly ascertained, conflicting accounts being given. It is evidently one of that genus called Tubularia by Linnæus, of the order Zoophyta, and which are designated as composite animals *efflorescing* like vegetables.

the Population of Grenada and the Grenadines, December 31st, 1832:—

Parishes.	Free, White* and Coloured.		Slaves.		Total Males.	Total Females.	Aliens and Strangers.
	Males.	Females	Males.	Females			
Town of St. George.....	922	1,349	796	859	1,708	2,208	96
Parish of St. do.....	311	348	1,942	2,067	2,253	2,415	65
——— John.....	186	235	1,086	1,068	1,272	1,303	28
——— Marks.....	71	60	646	720	717	780	2
——— Patrick....	151	88	2,042	2,239	2,193	2,327	12
——— Andrew....	238	317	2,377	2,430	2,615	2,747	20
——— David's....	124	105	900	949	1,024	1,054	9
Island of Carriacou.....	207	256	1,607	1,753	1,814	2,009	18
Total..	2,210	2,758	11,386	12,085	13,596	14,843	250

The *white* population was, in 1829, Town of St. George, 177 males, 107 females; parish of ditto, 90 males, 28 females; —St. John's, 38 males, 34 females;—St. Mark, 25 males, 10 females; St. Patrick, 84 males, 3 females;—St. Andrew, 94 males, 8 females;—St. David's, 38 males, 11 females;—Cariacou Isle, 50 males, 4 females;—Total, 596 males, 205 females:—total, coloured males, 1,562; females, 2,224.

The progressive decrease of the Slave Population was, in—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Decrease by Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1817 ..	13,737	14,292	28,029	212	239	451	478	424	902	38
1818 ..	13,328	14,087	27,415	305	352	657	538	532	1,070	54
1819 ..	13,155	13,905	27,060	339	375	714	585	584	1,169	99
1820 ..	13,007	13,892	26,899	311	330	641	485	410	895	41
1821 ..	12,398	13,269	25,667	352	330	682	506	422	928	62
1822 ..	12,355	13,231	25,586	371	350	721	364	316	680	63
1823 ..	12,258	13,052	25,310	361	358	719	398	426	824	104
1824 ..	12,101	12,871	24,972	353	324	677	392	332	724	97
1825 .	12,057	12,840	24,897	337	340	677	399	360	759	122
1826 ..	11,896	12,685	24,581	320	340	660	397	397	794	91
1827 ..	11,841	12,632	24,473	369	335	704	360	309	669	79
1828 ..	11,777	12,565	24,342	355	332	687	376	337	713	95
1829† ..	11,711	12,434	24,145	377	359	736	372	358	730	95
1830 ..	11,572	12,306	23,878	385	349	734	503	476	979	71
1831 ..	11,432	12,172	23,604*	348	336	684	500	428	928	115

* The slave population was rated at thirty-five thousand in 1779.

† Of Africans, males, 2,226; females, 2,075.

GOVERNMENT, LEGAL, MILITARY, AND ECCLESIASTICAL. The people are ruled by a Lieutenant-Governor, Council and House of Assembly, whose powers are similar to those described under Jamaica, &c. The Council consists of twelve members, and the Assembly of twenty-six. A freehold, or life estate of fifty acres in the country, and of £50. house rent in the capital, qualifies for a representative. An estate of ten acres in fee, or for life, or a rent of £10. in any of the country towns; and a rent of £20. out of any freehold, or life estate in the capital, gives a vote in the election of the representatives. The law courts, besides those of Chancery, in which the Governor presides, are the Court of Grand Session of the Peace, held twice a year, in which the person first named in the Commission of the Peace presides; the Court of Common Pleas, in which a professional judge, with a salary of £600. presides; the Court of Exchequer, lately fallen into disuse; the Court of Admiralty, and the Court of Error, composed of the Governor and Council, for trying appeals. In all cases the common statute law of England is the rule of justice, unless when particular laws of the island interfere. Since its restoration to Great Britain, in 1783, a Protestant clergy have been established by law. Four clergymen are allotted to the whole, and each is provided with an annual stipend of £330. currency, £60. for house rent, and a considerable portion of valuable glebe land, which had formerly been appropriated to the support of the Romish clergy, for whose benefit a part of the grant is still reserved.

There are eight places of worship, capable of containing 2,870 persons; and the expenses of the church establishment to the colonists is about £1,500. sterling per annum; that of five public schools is £430.

FINANCE. Colonial taxes and duties, (payable at the Treasury, by virtue of acts of the legislature), are levied on all wines imported, (wines for the use of his Majesty's service excepted), per pipe, £3. 6*s*. In bottles per dozen, 2*s*. 3*d*. on all brandy and gin, per gallon, 18*s*.; on each and every saddle horse, or mule, £3. 6*s*.; for every £100. of actual

rental of houses, stores, buildings, and sheds, (not used in the manufacture of produce,) or of the estimated rental thereof, when occupied by the proprietor, £3.; on each and every slave, 18*s.*; on every £100. value of produce, grown or manufactured in the year 1831, estimated as follow:—Muscovado sugar at 40*s.* per 100 lbs.; Rum, 2*s.* per gallon; Molasses, 1*s.* 6*d.* do.; Cotton, 6*d.* per lb.; Coffee, 1*s.* do.; Cocoa, 4*d.* do.; £3. per cent,

Harbour duty on all vessels clearing, per ton, 4*d.*; canal duty on all vessels clearing, per ton, 2*d.*

Monetary System. Each of our W. I. settlements, it will be observed, has almost a distinct currency, at least few are alike, the following is the standard table for Grenada currency, established (by proclamation) in 1798.

COINS.	Weight.		Value in Sterling.			Value in Currency.	
	dts.	*grs.*	£.	*s.*	*d.*	*dols.*	*bitts.*
Joe*	8	12	3	12	..	8	..
Joe	7	12	3	6	..	7	4
Pistole ...	4	6	1	16	..	4	..
Moidore ..	6	..	2	9	6	5	6
Guinea ...	5	..	2	5	..	5	..
Dollar	17	..	..	9	..	..	12
Bitt	..	..	..	..	9	..	1

The British and Colonial currency, established by proclamation in May, 1797, consisted of British half-crown, 6*s.* 3*d.*; shilling, 2*s.* 6*d.*; sixpence, 1*s.* 3*d.*; Colonial Moneta, marked IV. 2*s.* 6*d.*; VIII. 1*s.* 3*d.*; XVI. 7½*d.*

Commerce. In 1776 the exports from the island and its dependencies were 14,012,157lbs, of muscovado, and 9,273,607lbs. of clayed sugar; 818,700 gallons of rum; 1,827,166 lbs. of

* A Joe, value £3. 12*s.* has a G stamped in the middle of the face side. A Joe, value £3. 6*s.* has a G stamped in three places near the edge of the face side. When a Joe is plugged, the initials of the workman's name are stamped upon the plug.

coffee; 457,719 lbs. of cocoa; 91,943 lbs. of cotton; 27,638 lbs. of indigo; and some smaller articles, the whole of which at a moderate computation was worth at the ports of shipping, 600,000*l.* sterling. The sugar was the produce of one hundred and six plantations, worked by 18,293 negroes, which gives rather more than a hogshead of muscovado sugar of 16 cwt. from the labour of each negro; a return, which Mr. Edwards affirms to be unequalled by any other British island in the West Indies, except St. Christopher's. In 1787 the exports were 175,548 cwts. of sugar; 670,390 gallons of rum; 8,812 cwts. of coffee; 2,062,427 lbs. of cotton, and 2,810 lbs. of indigo. In 1831 the principal articles of export were, sugar 11,908 hgds, rum, 6,634 pchs.; molasses, 2,464 phs.; coffee, 6,103 bags. The total value of the *exports* was £118,761, and of *imports* £81,835.*

* Principal Exports from Grenada (except Cocoa.)

Years.	Sugar. Hds.	Rum, Pns.	Molasses Pns.	Coffee Bags.
1823	16,766	11,288	3,799	222
1824	5,263	8,663	1,869	147
1825	15,848	7,964	2,945	11
1826	15,441	8,358	2,498	176
				lbs.
1827	12,695	7,730	1,403	17,120
1828	20,171	9,464	3,216	28,320
1829				
1830	13,268	2,777	864	31,504
				Bags.
1831	11,908	6,634	2,464	6,103

Grenada Colonial Revenue and Expenditure, from 1821 to 1831, in pounds sterling.

Years.	Gross Revenue	Expenditure.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	11,325	10,512	800	11,312
1822	12,302	11,592	555	12,147
1823	10,360	8,722	720	9,442
1824	13,059	8,311	1,704	10,015
1825	12,740	11,455	960	12,415
1826	16,658	15,273	659	15,931
1827	12,473	12,466	727	13,193
1828	13,810	11,304	838	12,142
1829	12,443	11,302	822	11,954
1830	12,268	11,132	761	12,722
1831	12,513	12,630	719	13,340

CHAPTER VI.

ST. VINCENT'S.

LOCALITY — PHYSICAL ASPECT — VOLCANOES — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE — VEGETABLE KINGDOM AND PRODUCE — POPULATION — FINANCES — COMMERCE — GOVERNMENT, &c. &c.

LOCALITY. This most beautiful of the Caribbee Islands, about eighteen and a half miles long, and eleven broad, containing 84,286 acres, is situate in 13. 10. 15. N. Lat; 60. 37. 57. W. Long., nearly equidistant from Grenada and Barbadoes.

GENERAL HISTORY. St. Vincent's* was discovered by Columbus, during his third voyage, on the 22nd day of January, 1498, but it does not appear that he took any formal possession of it; the native inhabitants, the Caribs, being very numerous and warlike. In 1672, this island, with Barbadoes, St. Lucia, and Dominica, was included in one government by King Charles II., although no steps were taken to occupy St. Vincent, unless occasional visits, both by English and French, for the purpose of obtaining wood and water may be deemed such. About 1675, a ship from Guinea, with a cargo of slaves, was wrecked either on this island or on Bequia, and a number of the negroes escaped into the woods; these intermingled with the natives, and hence as it is supposed originated the black Caribs. In 1719, the French sent over some settlers from Martinico, a few of whom succeeded in establishing themselves in the leeward part of the island. In 1723, George I. granted this island and St. Lucia to the Duke of Montague, who made a feeble attempt to take possession of it, but his expedition failed; and, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral, and the ancient proprietors left in unmolested possession. The French, however, conti-

* Thus called from the day of its discovery, being *St. Vincent's* day in the Spanish calendar.

nued in their settlements until 1762, when it was taken by General Monckton and Admiral Rodney; and in 1763, by the peace of Paris, the island was ceded in perpetuity to Great Britain, without *much* consideration for the native proprietors. The lands were directed to be sold to defray the expenses of the war, and 20,538 acres produced £162,584. sterling. In 1772, a war with the Caribs commenced, which was terminated by a treaty in 1773, when certain lands were allotted them. In 1779 the island was taken by a small body of troops from Martinico, who were joined by the Caribs, which circumstance, coupled with unfortunate political differences, caused the surrender to be made without a struggle. The conquerors, however, made no alteration in the government, probably contemplating only a temporary possession. In 1780 the dreadful hurricane occurred, which destroyed the church and a great proportion of the buildings in the island, besides occasioning serious loss to the planters. St. Vincent was restored to Great Britain at the general peace in 1783; at which time it contained sixty-one sugar estates, besides other small plantations of cotton, coffee, and cocoa. In 1795 the doctrines of liberty and equality, which prevailed in France, were disseminated in the West India Islands, through the infernal agency of Victor Hugues, whose emissaries excited the Caribs, and some of the French inhabitants, into an insurrection, which continued for upwards of two years. Many sanguinary contests took place, with various success, which cannot be detailed within the limits of this work; but, ultimately, by the judicious measures of Sir Ralph Abercrombie and General Hunter, the French were subdued, and the Caribs removed to Ruattan, an island in the Bay of Honduras. The devastation occasioned by the enemy cost the proprietors at least, one-third of the value of their properties; but uninterrupted tranquillity has since prevailed, and the fine tract of land in Charlotte parish, called the Carib country, consisting of 5,000 acres, has been put into cultivation, and greatly increased the prosperity of the island.

In 1812 the island suffered from an eruption of the Souf-

friere volcanic mountain, which had been tranquil for nearly a century (from 1718). It was about 3,000 feet high, with a crater half a mile in diameter, and 500 feet in depth; in the centre was a conical hill, 200 feet in diameter, and 300 in height, the lower half skirted with luxuriant vegetation, the upper with pure virgin sulphur; various evergreens and aromatic shrubs, covered in exuberant fertility, the sides of the capacious crater, the interior of which presented a scene of Alpine seclusion and peacefulness that can scarcely be imagined. From the fissures of the cone, a thin white smoke exuded, occasionally tinged with a light blue flame; at the base were two small lakes, the one sulphureous and aluminous, the other pure and tasteless. At noon on the 27th of April, thirty days after the destruction of the Caraccas by an earthquake, and during the commotions in the vallies of the Missisippi and of the Ohio, a severe concussion of the earth took place, and a black column of smoke burst from the crater, which was followed by volumes of favillæ, which continued for three days.

An account written at the time says, that 'on the 30th April 1812, the reflection of the rising sun on this majestic body of curling vapours was sublime beyond imagination; it afterwards assumed a more sulphureous cast, and in the course of the day a feruginous and sanguine appearance, with much livelier action in the ascent,* a more extensive dilation, as if almost

* A cousin of mine (Captain George Palmer Hawkins) who was stationed with his regiment at Barbadoes when this eruption took place, informs me that, for four hours, the island was obscured in nearly total darkness, with the dense and unceasing fall of (favillæ) ash-coloured dust, which covered the whole of Barbadoes (distant full sixty miles from St. Vincent) to the depth of several inches, and proved a most valuable fertilizing mould to the then almost worn out island. The noise of the eruption was thought to be that of hostile fleets, and Captain Hawkins was laughed at for supposing that the dust and thunder could proceed from an island *sixty miles to leeward.* When we consider the quantity of ashes which fell at Barbadoes, and that many ships at sea had their decks covered with them, we may suppose that the quantity thrown from the *souffriere* must have been enormous, and the momentum with which it was ejected tremendous. R. M. M.

freed from any obstruction: in the afternoon the noise was incessant, and resembled the approach of thunder still nearer and nearer, with a vibration that affected the feelings and hearing; terror and consternation now seized all beholders. The Charibs settled at '*Morne Ronde*' fled precipitately towards the town; the negroes became confused, forsook their work, looked to the mountain, and as it shook, trembled with the dread of what they could neither understand nor describe; the birds fell to the ground, overpowered with showers of favillæ, unable to keep themselves on the wing; the cattle were starving from want of food, as not a blade of grass or leaf was now to be found. The sea was much discoloured, but in no wise uncommonly agitated; and, it is remarkable, that throughout the whole of this violent disturbance of the earth, it continued quite passive, and did not at any time sympathize with the agitation of the land. Scarcely had the day closed, when the flames burst at length pyramidically from the crater through the smoke; the rolling of the thunder became more awful and deafening; electric flashes quickly succeeded, attended with loud claps; and now, indeed, the hurly burly began. Shortly after 7 P. M. the mighty cauldron was seen to simmer, and the ebullition of lava to break out on the N. W. side. This immediately after boiling over the orifice, and flowing a short way, was opposed by the acclivity of a higher point of land, over which it was impelled by the immense tide of liquified fire that drove it on, forming the figure V in grand illumination. Sometimes, when the ebullition slackened, or was insufficient to urge it over the obstructing hill, it recoiled back like a refluent billow from the rock, and then again rushed forward, impelled by fresh supplies, and scaling every obstacle, carrying rocks and woods together in its course down the slope of the mountain, until it precipitated itself into some vast ravine, concealed by the intervening ridges of Morne Ronde. Vast globular bodies of fire were seen projecting from the fiery furnace, and bursting, fell back into it, or over it, on the surrounding bushes, which were instantly set in flames. About four

hours from the lava's boiling over the crater, it reached the sea, as we could observe from the reflection of the fire and the electric flashes attending it. About half past one another stream of lava was seen descending to the eastward. The thundering noise of the mountain, and the vibration of sound, that had been so formidable hitherto, now mingled in the sullen monotonous roar of the rolling lava, became so terrible, that dismay was almost turned to despair. At this time the first earthquake was felt: this was followed by showers of cinders, that fell with the hissing noise of hail, during two hours. This dreadful rain of stones and fire lasted upwards of an hour, and was again succeeded by cinders from three till six in the morning. Earthquake followed earthquake almost momentarily, or rather the whole of this part of the island was in a state of continued oscillation; not agitated by shocks, vertical or horizontal, but undulated like water shaken in a bowl. The break of day, if such it could be called, was truly terrific. Darkness only was visible at eight o'clock, and the birth of May dawned like the day of judgment: a chaotic gleam enveloped the mountain, and an impenetrable haze hung over the sea with black sluggish clouds of a sulphureous cast. The whole island was covered with favillæ, cinders, scoriæ, and broken masses of volcanic matter. It was not until the afternoon that the muttering noise of the mountain sunk gradually into a solemn yet suspicious silence. The damage done according to estimate was inconsiderable, and not more than fifty souls perished. The beds of the Wallibau and Rabacca rivers were completely levelled.'

St. Vincent's suffered severely from the effects of the hurricane in 1831, but this beautiful and extraordinary island is now, it is to be hoped, recovering from such disasters.*

* The following is a list of the Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, &c. who have administered the government of St. Vincent since the cession of the colony to Great Britain in 1763.—

Brig.-Gen. R. Melville, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief in and over the Southern Charibbee Islands of St. Vincent, Grenada, Dominica, and Tobago, 1763; Brig.-Gen. W. L. Leyborne, Gov. of the Southern

PHYSICAL ASPECT AND GEOLOGY. The mountains of St. Vincent are bold, sharp, and abrupt in their terminations, with deep intervening romantic glens,* and bound by a lofty and rocky coast. The connected chain of high mountains runs from N. to S., clothed with immense trees, breaking into subordinate masses towards the sea, of a less elevated description, and intersected by deep ravines in the interior, which gradually widen on the approach to the shore, and become vallies capable of cultivation, as they are generally well supplied with water; this feature is principally descriptive of the north-western side of the island. On the north-east the surface is more level and less broken, and there is a large tract of land at the base of the Souffriere mountain, gradually declining towards the sea, which forms an extensive plain of upwards of six thousand acres, and is the most productive land in the colony. The soil in the vallies is a rich tenacious loam, and occasionally a fine black mould; on the higher regions it assumes a more sandy character, and is less fertile; the lands adjoining the Souffriere are also clay at the bottom, but the surface having been covered with the sand ejected by the volcano in 1812, it presents the feature of a loose porous superficies. The character of this island, Mr. Shepherd † thinks, is decidedly volcanic, traces of strata which have undergone the action of fire, are visible every where, and huge masses of rock, displaced from their original situations, indicate the powerful

Charibbee Islands, as above, 1771; V. Morris, Esq. Gov. 1776; E. Lincoln, Esq. Gov. 1783; J. Seton, Esq. Gov. 1787; W. Bentinck, Esq. Gov. 1798; D. Ottley, Esq. Pres. 1799; H. W. Bentinck, Esq. Pres. 1805; Sir G. Beckwith, K. B. Gov. 1806; R. Paul, Esq. Pres. 1807; Sir C. Brisbane, Knight, Gov. 1812; R. Paul, Esq. Pres. 1816; Sir C. Brisbane, K. C. B. Gov. 1817; Sir W. J. Struth, Kt. Pres. 1829; Right Hon. Sir G. F. Hill, Bart. Gov. 1831.

* The delicious Valley of Bucament is five miles long and one wide, entirely open to the sea, with lofty mountains at the upper part and sides —and throughout the vale a clear and rapid river.

† *Vide* Historical Account of St. Vincent's, (principally in reference to the Carib war) published by Ridgway, Piccadilly.

agency which alone could have effected such a change; there is not a primitive rock in the island, an opinion which is supported by branches of trees and other substances, being frequently discovered in large masses of rock at considerable depths, which must at one time have been in a state of fusion; a remarkable instance is to be seen at the tunnel at Grand Sable.

Division. The island is divided into five parishes, Saint George, Charlotte, Saint Andrew, Saint David, and Saint Patrick. Within the first, stands the capital, Kingstown,—which is situated in 13. 8 N. Lat. 61. 17 W. Long., near the S. W. extremity of the island, about a mile along the shore of a deep and beautiful bay, protected by a battery on the S., or Cane Garden Point, and by Fort Charlotte* on the N. W. which are the chief defences of the island. The fort (distant one mile from Kingstown in a direct line, and two miles by the circuitousness of the road,) is situated on a rock above the level of the sea, and well fortified, it contains barracks for 600 men, and has thirty-four pieces of artillery of different descriptions, besides several outworks, for the protection of detached buildings.

The town, behind which the mountains gradually rise in a semi-circle, terminating at the greatest height in Mount Saint Andrew, consists of three streets, intersected by six others. There are about 300 of the larger sized houses, the lower stories of which are in general built with stone or brick, and

* The road to Fort Charlotte is very steep—so much so, that in looking from the mess-room windows, the sea is seen perpendicularly below, with the Island of Becquia and the Grenadines in the distance;—Old Woman's Point, forming the opposite horn of the Bay of Kingstown and Dorsetshire Hill, about two miles of gradual ascent to windward from the town of Kingston, which it overlooks with an imposing aspect. The garrison was formerly stationed here, but latterly removed to the opposite promontory, as a more commanding site. Berkshire Hill, on which is placed Fort Charlotte, is a promontory or high projecting neck of land overhanging the sea, and nearly perpendicular on three of its sides. It completely commands the Town and Bay of Kingston, and can be easily separated from both should it be necessary to cut off the intercourse.

the upper of wood, with shingled roofs, while the close adjoining sugar plantations form (particularly when viewed from the harbour,) a very beautiful prospect. The public buildings are substantial, but not elegant. The church is a large heavy brick building, capable of containing 2,000 persons, it has an excellently toned organ, a splendid chandelier, and very handsome pulpit, and bishop's throne.*

The Court House is built of stone, and contains two rooms on the upper story appropriated for the sittings of the Council and Assembly, with two Committee Rooms; below the Courts of Justice are held. Here also are the Public Offices of the Registrar and Marshal; this building stands in front of the Market Place, and is inclosed with an iron railing; behind it the Gaol, the Cage and the Treadmill are placed. In the front close to the sea-side, stand the Market House, and the depot for the Militia Arms. The Wesleyan Missionaries have a commodious wooden Chapel, and the Romanists have commenced a brick Church.†

* The expenses of this building, which was opened for divine service in 1820, amounted to upwards of £47,000 currency, of which Government contributed £5,000 sterling, out of the purchase-money of the Carib lands. The old building was destroyed by the hurricane in 1780.

† The famed botanic garden, about a mile from Kingston, occupies thirty acres of ground, in the form of an oblong square, the lower part level, but soon becoming a gradual ascent until it terminates in a steep hill, a beautiful mountain stream forming its northern boundary, near the upper part of the garden, and in the centre stands the Governor's house, commanding a splendid view—immediately below the capital of the island —in front the deep blue sea and the Grenadine isles—in the distance a magnificent vista, bounded on each side by a long and spacious avenue of lofty forest trees.

The roads on the windward coast are tolerably good for thirty miles, their track in general is near to the sea-side, except in cases of high land, when it is necessary to pass along the indentations of the vallies. On the leeward coast, for a distance of twenty-three miles, they are much inferior, the hills being much higher, the circuity of the track is proportionally increased; the latter are little frequented, the passage by sea in canoes being more easy and commodious. The highways are kept in

Saint George's Parish extends from Kingstown north to the river Jambou, and contains 9,337 acres of land in sugar estates; it has seven rivers capable of turning mills; the different ridges in this parish having been cleared of their wood by the earlier settlers, the clouds are attracted by the more lofty mountains in the interior; and it has been deemed prudent to preserve the timber on an elevated situation, called the King's Hill,* from future destruction, by an especial Act of the Legislature.

At three miles from Kingstown is the small town of Calliaqua, consisting of 59 houses, and 400 inhabitants, its chief attraction is the commodious harbour, and very convenient beach for shipping produce. There is a singularly insulated rock on the north western side, 260 feet above the level of the sea, on the top of which, Fort Duvernette is constructed; it is ascended by a staircase cut out of the solid stone. On Dorsetshire Hill there are barracks for troops, but in such a dilapidated state, as not to be habitable. Some distance above Calliagua, towards the interior is the Vigie, (or look out) a very commanding situation. The different ridges are here concentrated into one elevation with three conical hills,

repair by the proprietors of the estates who have adjoining portions allotted them by an Act of the Legislature, on which they are required to expend an estimated quantity of labour, and for which they are allowed a certain sum from the treasury, on a certificate from the Way-wardens of the parish, who are nominated by the Justices at the February Sessions in each year.

* Baron Humboldt's remarks on this subject ought to be deeply impressed on the mind of every proprietor, not only in the West Indies but in every country, more especially in a tropical climate. 'By felling the trees that cover the tops and sides of the mountains, men in every climate prepare at once two calamities for future generations, the want of fuel and the scarcity of water. Where forests are destroyed, as they are every where in America by the European planters with an imprudent precipitation, the springs are entirely dried up or become less abundant, the beds of the rivers, remaining dry during a part of the year, are converted into torrents whenever great rains fall on the heights.'—*Pers. Narrative*, vol. iv. p. 142.

where the Caribs fixed their camp. Eastward is the very extensive valley of Maniaqua, which has only one singular cleft, or opening, with almost perpendicular sides, through which the river Jambou flows to the sea.* Some persons have conjectured that this valley is an exhausted crater, which has been thus drained of its waters; the position is too low to maintain this hypothesis, as the volcanic craters in all the Islands, are situated on the most lofty mountains.

Charlotte Parish is bounded on the south by St. George's, and northerly by uncultivable lands, it contains 11,849 acres in cultivation, and that part of it called the Carib country, which was only partially settled in 1804, is the most productive in the Island. The southern part consists of a portion of General Monckton's grant of 4,000 acres, which he sold for £30,000. sterling, and which was subsequently disposed of in lots by the speculators. This parish is so well supplied with rivers, notwithstanding several were absorbed at the time of the eruption of the Souffriere, that all the mills are worked by water; and the estates are generally larger than in the other parishes.†

Saint Andrew's Parish is the first on the leeward side adjoining the town, it contains 4,096 acres, and the vallies being narrower, the estates are small and more compact, neither is it so well supplied with water, except in Buccament Valley, which is one of the most extensive and fertile in the Island.

* 'Here,' says Mr. Shepherd, 'is a majestic cabbage tree, (Areca oleracea) which in 1814 was ascertained to be 156 high by trigonometrical measurement. This is considerably higher than Mr. Coleridge has admitted, though the existence of Ligon's 300 feet trees is by no means contended for.'

† A tunnel of 200 feet long was cut *through Mount Young* in 1813, which greatly improved the means of communication with the newly-settled country; and a stupendous work was afterwards undertaken by the owner of Grand Sable estate, in cutting another tunnel through the same mountain, lower down and nearer the sea, for the convenience of shipping the produce. The material to be perforated proved to be stone instead of terrass, as was expected—and 360 feet in length were accordingly blasted by drilling in the solid rock, at an expense of about £5,000 currency.

In this parish is the small town of New Edinburgh, where the depot for the commissariat stores is erected.

Saint Patrick is the next in order, on the western coast, containing 5,426 acres, with the two small towns of Layou and Barouallie: here the land becomes much more precipitous and difficult of cultivation, and the fertility decreases.

The last is Saint David's, containing 4,198 acres, whose characteristic features are the same as the preceding; in Washilabo Valley, and also at the south point near to the entrance of Chateaubelair Bay, are some fine specimens of Basaltes; the vicinity of the Souffriere and other lofty mountains ensures the planters in this quarter plenty of rain, and the facilities of shipping produce, compared with the bold eastern coast are very great, and reduce the expense and risk of an estate considerably. A most intelligent and enterprising traveller, Captain Sir J. E. Alexander, thus graphically describes his recent visits to the terrific Souffriere:—

'Conspicuous among the majestic mountains of St. Vincent is the Souffriere, occupying the N. W. point of the island. This celebrated volcano is the grandest scene in the West Indies. The lofty summit is only to be seen at intervals between the rolling clouds, and the sides are furrowed with streams of lava. The Crater is three miles in circumference, and 500 feet in depth; it contains within it a conical hill beautifully streaked with sulphur, and covered with shrubs and flowers. The road to the Souffriere passes through corn fields and a thicket of long grass and ferns, which reach over a horse's back; the path then can hardly be seen, and seems to be on a narrow ridge, on each side of which is a precipice, that to the west being most terrific. There is considerable danger here from the difficulty of keeping the path; the shrubs are so thick, the ferns so tough, that they can hardly be broken through, and the grass is sharp and cutting; the ascent is gradual. Six large trees, half way to the volcano, afford a shade under which to refresh and to admire the graceful forms of the tree ferns scattered here and there. For some distance beyond the resting place the path continues intricate as before, and then the crater ridge is reached. This is more thinly sprinkled with trees; towards the summit it is quite bare, and furrowed with the traces of the mountain torrents and of lava, while sand and ashes are under foot. To the south is a mountain which seems to overhang the traveller; it is richly covered to the top with tufted foliage, which forms a contrast to the scene on the north; there desolation seems to have marked it for its own; the destruc-

tive agency of fire has annihilated the vegetation, and left nothing but a bare, barren, and blackened mass of rocks. The naturalist might here pitch his tent, and observe the vegetation improving as he descends the mountain, abounding in lichen, mosses, grasses, shrubs and trees. There is a convenient nook for leaving the horses, and then on walking forwards twenty yards probably a mighty cloud of vapour may be seen; it fills the crater to the brim, gradually clears off, and then the awful majesty of the scene is unfolded. Instinctively the gazer recoils from the abyss beneath his feet, and his senses are wrapt in amazement, for he sees before him one of the most sublime scenes in nature; the sides of the mighty goblet are themselves mountains, here descending in a perpendicular wall to the water, and there inclining at an angle of 45°: distinctly marked on the sides of the cauldron is the height of the water of the lake at different times, the variation of which takes place doubtless from rains and evaporation. The eastern top of the crater is about 3,500 feet above the level of the sea, and there also the depth from the top to the surface of the lake is 300 feet, the circumference of the cauldron at the top is about three miles: a cold mist commonly rests on the surface of the green, slimy, and unfathomable water at the bottom; and so horrible is the scene, that one almost expects to see the fluid rise from the surface of the dreary lake. The three peaks to the north of the crater are nearly all of the same height, that is 4,000 feet above the sea. On one of these Mr. Charles Parker, of Liverpool, a gentleman of considerable scientific acquirements, observed the thermometer at 45 minutes past 2 p. m. on the 31st July, 1824, when clear, to stand at 69°; and when hazy at 70°; whilst about noon in the plain, it indicated 82° of heat. From the Souffriere, when the day is clear, an extensive view may be had of that wild region the Charib country, now occupied by a mere handful of red Indians.

'In walking along the brink of the crater, it is necessary to clamber over ridges, covered with slippery moss, on a loose soil, without a shrub to hold by, and one false step will send the adventurer rolling down into the Souffriere. After a mile and a half is accomplished, the new crater is seen: it lies to the S. E. of the other; and, if the mist is thick and a breeze blowing, as is often the case, it is necessary to crawl forward on hands and knees, otherwise it is impossible to avoid a fatal accident whilst looking into the lesser crater. The two craters are separated only by a narrow ridge or saddle, which, though apparently impassable, a sailor once succeeded in crossing. The new crater is more of an abyss than its neighbour: its sides are more rugged and frightful, but it is much smaller at bottom, where there is a mass of black ashes and sand, and a little water of a red clayey hue; sometimes it is quite dry. It is possible, but it is a perilous enterprize, to descend to the surface of the lake in the great crater. It is necessary to slip down rocks and gulleys, having only small

projecting stones, roots of grass, and shrubs to hold by and stand upon. The rapid descent occupies about twenty minutes, and then there is a small promontory, which juts out a few yards into the water. Here two friends stripped and determined to bathe in the appalling lake, with its slimy water of unfathomable depth; they plunged into the abyss, but the sensations they experienced on looking up around them were so overwhelming, and the water chilling their bones, they were not long in regaining the land, having performed a feat that none ever before attempted.'

CLIMATE. This very beautiful isle stands high in reputation as a healthy station; hills and vallies, wood and water, in abundance, are so disposed as to contribute to its salubrity; —the hills being of a conical shape, there are no livid surfaces of uncultivated shrubs to harbour miasm, and be swept down occasionally on the inhabitants below with destructive effect. The vallies are not deep or filled with jungle and brush wood impervious to the sun's rays, but the woods being composed of large trees, and growing from the base to the summit of the mountains, forms an agreeable shade, cooling the breeze as it passes through them. Composed as St. Vincent's is, with sloping surfaces, and gravelly subsoil, there is hardly any flat ground in the island, and the perpetually flowing streams from the mountains and hills, while they tend to temper the air, make the general scene ever verdant and cheerful. Hurricanes have been severely in this island.*

* On the morning of the 11th August, 1831, St. Vincent was visited by a severe gale of wind, or hurricane, which did very great injury to the plantations on the north and west sides of the island, destroying the greater part of the sugar works and other buildings in the beautiful vale of the Charaib country, to windward, as well as at Chateaubelair and other places in the leeward quarter. Nineteen vessels were driven on shore in Kingston bay, of which the greater part were got off in a few weeks, and seven others were totally wrecked in different parts of the government. The gale commenced in Kingstown from the north, shortly after daylight and went round to the north-west; it then shifted to the south-west, and subsided about one o'clock in the afternoon; but in other parts of the island it commenced much earlier, and its violence was much greater. The estimate of the losses, as taken by the Committees of the Legislature, amounted to £163,420.

The following complete meteorological table, though given for Kingstown in St. Vincent's, will enable the European reader to form a general idea of the climate of the Caribbee islands :—

MONTH.	THERMOMETER.*				PLUVIAMETER.†				HYGROMETER.	
	In King Town.				Quantity of Rain, in inches.				Mean Temperature in Kingstown.	
	Lowest.	Highest.	Monthly Mean.	Mean. 1831.	In Kingstown.		3 Miles E. of Town.			
					1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.
January....	74½	84½	78:52	80:01	2:56	2:96	2:43	1:98		68:68
February...	72	85	78:06	79:29	1:17	3:96	0:31	1:84		67:14
March	73	86	78:12	79:65	2:97	1:42	1:53	1:16		67:99
April.....	74	86	79:69	80:14	1:16	3:39	0:67	3:95		67:93
May	78	87	81:53	81:05	8:58	4:53	6:44	2:76		69:30
June.....	76	86½	81:19	81:46	10:70	7:94	7:47	3:06		69:25
July	78	87	81:18	81:16	10:52	9:70	8:31	5:91		70:25
August	77	88	81:79	82:18	11:18	8:56	6:55	7:46	70:84	69:66
September	77	89	81:10	81:80	9:35	13.38	11:29	15:14	70:75	69:69
October....	78	88	81:40	82:26	6:24	9:31	6:80	8:40	70:25	69:39
November..	75	87	80:62	81:37	13:19	8.62	8:18	9:68	70:22	69:41
December ..	73	85	79:81	79:21	9:84	4:33	5:25	2:75	69:94	67:89
Year..	75:46	86:50	80:25	80:80	87:46	78:19	65.23	69:08	70:40	68:86‡

VEGETABLE KINGDOM. It would be mere recapitulation to detail the vegetation of St. Vincent's; the following enumeration of the fruits, esculents, &c. in season throughout the year will demonstrate the great variety of vegetable food which our West India Islands afford :—

'*January.*—Sappadillos, pomegranates, papaws, sour-sops, plantains, okros, peppers, cocoa-nuts, pigeon or angola peas, sweet potatoes, yams, creole ditto, tanias, cotton. *February.*—Sappadillos, sour-sops, chicou. *March.*—Sappadillos, sour-sops, granadillos, custard apples, guavas, plantains, cerasees, Ceylon ditto, sweet potatoes, yams. *April.*—Sap-

* St. Vincent, *July* 30, 1824, observed the thermometer at 2h. 45m. P.M. on Knole of Benmore when clear, 69°; during hazy, 70°; about noon in the plain, 82°. At 5h. 30m. P.M. in New Crater, air, 71°: at 6h. 15m. P.M. in ditto, water, 68°. At 3h. 30m. A.M. *July* 31, *cloudy*;—top of hill, 65°; lee of ditto, 67°; interior of cave, 71°. [Mr. Charles Parker, Liverpool.]

† At Langley Park, St. Vincent, 850 feet above the level of the sea, in 1822, there fell 120.14 inches of rain; there were 104 dry days; wet ditto, 261;—total, 365: floods, forty days; thunder-storms, sixty days.

‡ The highest number denotes moisture; the lowest a dry state of the atmosphere.

padillos, Java plums, mangoes, mamme-sapotas, pine-apples, Otaheite gooseberries, Jamaica plums, cerasees, Ceylon ditto, bread-fruit, silk cotton, galba-seeds for fences. *May.*—Sappadillos, mangoes, granadillos, water-lemons, cashews, pine-apples, Otaheite gooseberries, Jamaica plums, Ceylon cerasees, silk cotton. *June.*—Mangoes, Java plums, Jamaica ditto, cashews, Ceylon cerasees, pigeon peas, (nearly out of season) cloves. *July.*—Mangoes, mamme-sapotas, granadillos, cashews, avocado pears, cerasees. *August.*—Mangoes, mamme-sapotas, avacado pears, hog plums. *September.*—Sugar-apples, sea-side grapes, granadillos, hog plums, pompions, portuguese yams, tanais. *October.*—Sugar-apples, guavas, sea-side grapes, avacado pears, Portuguese yams, coffee. *November.*—Granadillos, chicou, okros, peppers, bread-fruit, coffee. *December.*—Sappadillos, sour-sops, guavas, granadillos, sweet cerasees, pigeon peas, okros, peppers, sorrel, yams, cotton.'

The following shews the quantities of staple produce made in St. Vincent and its dependencies from 1801 to 1831, together with the number of negroes in each parish.*

* As an historical document I give the following account, shewing the total number of Slaves annually employed and quantity of produce raised in the island of *St. Vincent* and its Dependencies from 1801 to 1831, both inclusive.—

Year.	Slaves.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Cotton.	Year.	Slaves.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Cotton.
	No.	Hds.	Pun	Pun	Lbs.	Lbs.	Bales.		No.	Hds.	Pun	Pun	Lbs.	Lbs.	Bales.
1801	17,342	17,699	8702	1492				1818	20,817	19,436	9672	2653	8,243	11,628	560
1802	17,484	19,317	9012	1322				1819	20,748	†		2123	11,052	16,744	139,012
1803	17,441	18,371	8929	1119				1820	20,582	16,681	8873	2231	7,947	11,769	256
1804	20,294	17,235	8804	1660	12,400	5,516	890	1821	20,362	18,331	9797	4275	10,620	13,285	402
1805	19,647	20,981	9332	2851	13,086	1,681	1,493	1822	20,380	19,596	9630	8118	7,857	14,653	661
1806	19,672	20,224	8341	3454	8,904	2,142	1,150	1823	20,077	17,534	4778	7572	9,553	9,120	644
1807	20,525	19,135	8102	2902	14,650	3,745	777	1824	20,135	18,549	5321	8712	13,743	23,110	628
1808	20,977	19,073	8518	2470	27,295	8,718	1,112	1825	20,025	20,271	5674	6461	8,707	19,269	416
1809	20,755	19,186	9369	1388	30,809	11,651	997	1826	19,889	19,591	5656	5570	6,990	26,173	533
1810	20,620	16,127	7591	1441	12,992	3,979	847	1827	19,833	18,340	6205	7090	10,103	13,201	251
1811	20,602	17,059	8519	1981	21,978	10,575	638	1828	19,863	21,160	6627	3973	1,873	18,434	369
1812	20,544	15,872	8740	1078	13,713	4,297	669	1829	19,603	18,676	6542		2,572	12,216	237
1813	20,428	16,106	9383	534	14,649	5,162	742	1830				4360			
1814	20,888	17,377	9329	1467	6,998	9,785	616	1831		13,365	5973		1,260	7,861	
1815	20,833	17,917	9181	1732	9,176	9,430	448	1832							
1816	20,573	19,721	8985	2216	10,473	12,160	621	1833							
1817	20,961	18,642	8642	2445	15,989	10,971	291	1834							

† The quantity of sugar, rum and molasses manufactured in the Grenadines are not included in the first three years of this return. The figures from 1801 to 1819, I derive from the official account published at St. Vincent in 1819; from 1820 to 1829 Mr. Shepherd's work is my authority; 1831 from the St. Vincent Almanack, converted into the denominations here used.

Parishes and Islands.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Cotton.	Coffee.	Cocoa.*	Negroes on 1st January, 1831.
	Lbs.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	No.
Charlotte Parish.....	9,689,619	270,603	152,948			561	6,837
St. George's do.....	6,849,236	193,853	100,873			250	5,284
St. Andrew's do.....	2,514,892	67,034	58,594				1,558
St. Patrick's do.....	2,152,648	54,551	45,171				1,747
St. David's do.....	1,970,868	45,881	25,244		1,260	7,050	1,612
The Grenadines.....	1,277,787	25,197	53,195	55,597			2,317
Total..	24,454,550	657,069	436,025	55,597	1,260	7,861	19,355

POPULATION.. The aborigines of the island were undoubtedly the yellow Caribs, probably emigrants from Guyana.† When St. Vincent's was visited by Europeans, two distinct races of men were discovered; they were of different origins, and their appearances and manners plainly corresponded with those of different portions of the globe. One of these tribes had evidently descended from the aborigines of the island, those of the other tribe were evidently intruders, and the great difficulty consists in accounting fairly and fully for their introduction. It is supposed that about 1675, a ship carrying out negroes from that country for sale, foundered on the coast of Bequia, a small island near to Saint Vincent, and that the slaves who escaped from the wreck were received by the inhabitants as brethren. But this was not all, the proprietors of the island gave their daughters in marriage to these strangers, and the race which sprang from this mixture were called Black Caribs, having preserved more of the primitive colour of their fathers, than the lighter hue of their mothers. The yellow Caribs are of a low stature, the black are tall and stout, and this doubly savage race speak with a degree of vehemence which seems like anger.

At length some difference arose between these two classes, of which the French in Martinico resolved to avail themselves, and as is usual to profit by the ruin of both parties; but the smallness of the numbers sent against the Black Caribs, and

* Arrow-root, 3,763 lbs.

† For a description of these people I refer to the chapter on British Guyana.

the defection of the Yellow Caribs, who refused to supply such dangerous allies with any of the succours which they had promised them to act against their rivals, together with the impossibility of coming up with enemies who kept themselves concealed in the woods, were circumstances which combined to disconcert this rash and violent enterprize; the Gallic invaders were therefore forced to reimbark, after losing many valuable lives:—but the triumph of the Black Caribs did not prevent their suing for peace, they even subsequently invited the French to come and live with them, swearing sincere friendship: the proposal was accepted, and in the year 1719 many of the French inhabitants of Martinico removed to St. Vincent's. When the French came, they brought their slaves with them to clear and till the ground; the Black Caribs, shocked at the idea of resembling persons who were degraded by slavery, and fearing that in process of time their own colour, which betrayed their origin, might be made a pretence for enslaving them, took refuge in the thickest part of the woods, and in order to create and perpetuate a visible distinction between their race and the slaves brought into the island, and likewise in imitation of the practice of the Yellow Caribs, they compressed, so as to flatten, the foreheads of all their new born infants, and this was thereafter concluded as a token of their independence. The next generation thus became as it were, a new race, they gradually quitted the woods, erected huts, and formed little communities on the coast; by degrees they claimed a portion of the territory possessed by the Caribs, and having learned the use of fire-arms, which they procured from the French traders, on being refused a friendly participation in the landed property, established themselves as a separate tribe, elected a chief, re-commenced hostilities against the Yellow Caribs, and by force brought their adversaries to terms of accommodation, by which it was agreed to divide equally the lands situated on the leeward coast. It happened however, after this division, that the Black Caribs experienced a most mortifying disappointment, for most of the new planters from Europe, and from the French settle-

ments in the West Indies, landed and settled near the Yellow Caribs, where the coast is most accessible. This decided preference occasioned a new war, in which the Yellow Caribs were always defeated, and at length obliged to retire to the windward parts of the island, some fled to the Continent, and some to Tobago, the few that remained lived separately from the blacks, who became the sole masters of all the lands on the leeward shore, assumed the right of conquerors, and obliged the European planters to re-purchase the lands, for which they had already paid the Yellow Caribs,*

While these differences were in progress, and while the French were gradually gaining a footing in the island, George the first granted it to the Duke of Montague, who in 1723, sent out a small armament to take possession, but the English on their arrival found the French influence under the appearance of protection so predominant, and the determination of the natives to admit no Europeans to a permanent settlement there so fixed, that they were glad to abandon their alleged proprietorships; and when the Duke, at a subsequent period endeavoured to establish his claim before the Privy Council it was disallowed.

Notwithstanding the difficulties created by Caribs, the French prevailed by means of continual reinforcements of men and money, and superior skill in agriculture and commercial affairs; so that in less than twenty years, 800 whites, and 3,000 black slaves, were employed in the cultivation of commodities for exportation, which yielded a sum equal to £63,625, sterling. The expedition which was sent against Martinico in 1762, under General Monckton and Admiral Rodney, subsequently captured St. Vincent's, and a war between the British and Caribs soon followed. The result of several severe contests was (as stated under the general history of the island) the final subjugation of the Yellow and

* A Frenchman having produced to a Black Carib Chief a deed of land that he had purchased of a Yellow Carib, was told he did not know what the paper contained, but pointing to his own arrow, said if he did not give him the sum he demanded, he would set fire to and burn down his house that very night. Shepherd's *St. Vincent.*

Black Caribs, and their deportation to the number of 5,080 from the island to Ruattan in Honduras Bay, after costing the colonists in expenses and losses £900,000. sterling, and a considerable sacrifice of European life.*

The following shews the Population of St. Vincent and its Dependencies at several intervals:—

Year.	Negroes.	Caribs.	Whites.	Coloured.	Slaves.†
1735	6,000	4,000	—	—	—
1764	—	—	2,104	—	7,414
1787	—	—	1,450	300	11,853
1805	—	—	1,600	450	16,500
1812	—	—	1,053	1,482	24,920
1825	—	—	1,301	2,824	23,780
1831	—	—	—	—	22,997

FINANCE. The revenue of the island is stated by Mr. Shepherd at about £26,000 per annum, and raised by an annual tax act, by which assessments on all the staple commodities of the Island are made, and a proportionate per centage on the incomes of merchants and other persons, with a poll tax on unattached slaves; Commissioners to carry the act into execution, are named for each parish, and the returns are directed to be given in to the Treasurer in January, from

* For a very able and interesting account of the Carib war *vide* Mr. Shepherd's History of St. Vincent before referred to.

† The progressive increase or decrease of the slave population from 1817 to 1831 was,—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.		
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1817 ..	12,743	12,475	25,218	—	—	—	—	—	—
1822 ..	12,007	12,245	21,252	1,298	1,358	2,656	2,275	1,930	4,205
1825 ..	11,685	12,095	23,780	918	934	1,852	1,157	949	2,206
1828 ..	11,583	12,116	23,699	939	890	1,729	1,117	903	2,120
1831 ..	11,216	11,781	22,997	919	862	1,781	1,230	1,036	2,266

whence the rates are calculated according to the estimated expences of the island, and submitted to the Assembly. The Colony derives no pecuniary assistance from Great Britain; the garrison, the proportionate expence of the naval establishment, the packets, and the home salary of the Governor, form the only burthen, if such it can be called, sustained by the mother country.

The estimated expences of the Colony, for the year 1832, was, salaries to public officers, H. Ex. the Gov. 5,000*l.*; Chief Justice, 1,200*l.* Attor. Gen. 500*l.*; Clerk of Council, 200*l.*: ditto of Assembly, 500*l.*; Messenger and House-keeper, 200*l.*; Clerk to the Magistrates, 50*l.*; Register of Slaves, 250*l.*; Treasurer, 1,200*l.*; Colonial Agent, £350 sterling, 840*l.*; Signal men, 85*l.* Clerk of the Market, 100*l.*; Overseer of Tread-mill, 150*l.*; Chief Constable, 300*l.*; Extra Constable, 300*l.*—10,875*l.* Military Establishment.—Adj. South. Regt. Militia, 100*l.*; ditto N. Reg. 50*l.*; ditto Queen's Companies, 50*l.*; Armourer, 100*l.*; Repairing Military Roads, 210*l.*; Clearing the Parade Ground. 150*l.*—660*l.* Clerical Establishment.—Rector of St. George and St. Andrew's Parishes, 1,060*l.*; Parish Clerk to ditto, 100*l.*; Organist to ditto, 300*l.*—1,460*l.* Rector of Charlotte Parish, 700*l.*; Parish Clerk to ditto, 66*l.*—766*l.* Rector Leeward Parishes, 700*l.*; ditto, House-rent, 100*l.*; Parish Clerk to Leeward, 66*l.*—866*l.* Rector of the Grenadines, 700*l.*; Parish Clerk to ditto, 33*l.*—733*l.* Estimated expences for repairing Churches, &c.—4,825*l.* Annuities.—To Militia Men, &c., 286*l*; to Manumitted Slaves, 420*l.*; Arrears to ditto, 706*l.* — 1,412*l.*—Public Roads. — Annual Repairs, 2,715*l.*; ditto, Vigie and Owia, 199*l.*; Arrears of Annual Repair, 2,733*l.*; allowed extra for heavy rains, 500*l.*—6,147*l.*; Repairs to Governor's residence, 3,000*l.*; Accounts against the Public, 3,500*l.*; Arrears of ditto, 1,871; Allowed for contingencies, 3,000*l.*; Rewards under the Slave Act, to Nurses and Midwives, 3,000*l.*; Register of Slaves, for Triennial Return, 1,000*l.*—15,371*l.* Total 39,290*l.*

The taxes, &c. to meet these estimates, were—Due by the Treasurer's account, to 31st Dec. 1831, per his statement,

877*l.*; Deficiency of White Servants, 1,908*l.*; Duties on Liquors, 126*l.*; Powder Officer, 418*l.*; Transient Traders, 45*l.*; Custom-House, 31*l.*; Outstanding Taxes, 12,904*l.*; Liquor Licenses, 1,266*l.*; Amount of Produce, Poll and House Tax, at 2 per cent, 12,826*l.*; 1,621 Negroes, at 5*s.* 405*l.*—30,810*l.*

The expenditure of the Island from the Treasurer's Books, was, in Currency—

£.	£.	£.	£.
1806 - 16,433	1812 - 19,583	1818 - 37,858	1824 - 38,034
1807 - 28,536	1813 - 24,123	1819 - 85,126	1825 - 23,134
1808 - 22,504	1814 - 22,036	1820 - 39,710	1826 - 36,178
1809 - 16,158	1815 - 18,633	1821 - 18,130	1827 - 32,327
1810 - 19,868	1816 - 24,250	1822 - 37,712	1828 - 31,671
1811 - 21,253	1817 - 22,133	1823 - 29,908	1829 - 25,361

MONETARY SYSTEM. Current value of the coins in circulation within this Government. *Silver coins.*—Spanish dollar, 10*s.* half dollar, 5*s.*; Carolus, 2*s.*; Pistareen, 1*s.* 6*d.*; Quarter Colonial coin, 4 dwts. 9 grs. 2*s.* 6*d.*; English shilling, 3 dwts. 16 grs. 2*s.* 3½*d.*

Gold coins.—

Doubloon	17 dwts. 8 grs.	16 dol.	£8	0	0
Half do.	8 — 16 —	8 — 4	0	0	
Guinea	5 — 8 —	44 5ths	2	8	0
Sovereign	5 — 3½ —	43 5ths	2	6	1½

Copper coins.—English penny-piece, and stampee, 2¼*d.* each; ditto, halfpenny, 1⅛*d.*; dog, 1½*d.*

The gold coins in circulation are exclusively Spanish and Portuguese, the Doubloon at the value of sixteen dollars with the aliquot parts in proportion; the Johannes pass by weight at nine shillings the penny-weight; formerly this coin was the most common throughout the Islands, each Colony mutilating their own by plugs and various marks, to prevent exportation; from these practices the coin became so deteriorated, that in 1818 it was called in at a considerable loss, and Doubloons came into more general circulation. The silver coins are the dollar which passes at ten shillings currency, and Colonial coins of one-fourth, one-eighth and one-sixteenth: the British silver occasionally forms part of the commissariat issues, from

which source nearly all the bullion of the country arises, but it is speedily collected by the merchants for remittances to Europe, and is therefore of little benefit as a general circulating medium; the English copper money, and a barbarous Colonial coin, with the equally barbarous names of Stampees and Black Dogs, complete the catalogue. The sterling value of the dollar being four shillings and four pence, gives £230 $\frac{10}{13}$, as the currency value of £100.

COMMERCE. In 1832 there were shipped from St. Vincent's to Great Britain, of *sugar*, 12,477 hogsheads, 441 tierces, 197 barrels; of *rum*, 225 puncheons; of *molasses*, 2,398 puncheons. To the British American Provinces, sugar, 91 hogsheads, 116 tierces, 441 barrels; rum, 2,239 puncheons; molasses, 1,111 puncheons. To the British W. I. islands, and to other ports there, were small quantities of the above mentioned items, making a total of ugar, 12,647 hogsheads; 567 tierces, 718 barrels; of rum, 3,2[illegible]6 puncheons, 87 hogsheads, 21 barrels; of molasses, 4,206 puncheons; and there were also some small shipments to Europe, including 631 boxes of arrow root.

The value of the total maritime trade of the island, and the amount of shipping therein employed is thus shewn:—

VALUE OF IMPORTS FROM

Years.	Great Britain.	West Indies	North America.	Foreign States	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1830	57,135	25,088	43,282	22,801	148,298
1831	96,356	61,952	41,005	53,562	252,875
1832					

VALUE OF EXPORTS TO

1830	263,347	37,564	34,597	2,536	338,045
1831	219,302	31,758	28,129	8,021	287,211
1832					

SHIPPING OUTWARDS TO

Years.	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total.	
	No. of Vessels.	Tons.	No. of Vessels.	Tons.	No. of Vessels.	Tons.		
1830	45	12,732	292	17,735	91	3,588	428	34,055
1831	37	10,891	348	20,260	76	5,635	461	36,786
1832								

SHIPPING INWARDS FROM

1830	36	10,346	245	16,417	104	5,532	385	32,295
1831	46	13,486	294	17,069	106	7,740	446	38,295
1832								

FORM OF GOVERNMENT, LAWS, ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS, MILITARY, &c.* The authorities which constitute

* I am indebted for this section (and indeed I ought to say that I have

the Government of the Island, are, the Governor, Council, and Assembly, the former is Chancellor, Ordinary and Vice Admiral. His duties are regulated by instructions from His Majesty, which are said to have been originally framed in the time of Charles II. for the Island of Jamaica, and have been adopted for the other Islands; to these may be added His Majesty's Proclamation of the 7th of October, 1763, which may be called the foundation of the insular constitution, by this authority the general assemblies are summoned, and the powers of enacting laws, as near as may be to the laws of England, are given, the authority for erecting Courts of Judicature, with the liberty of appeal, is also recognised in this document, which was promulgated after the treaty of Paris.*

The Council consists of twelve Members, five or six of whom are usually named in the Governor's Commission, and the remainder supplied by recommendation of the Governor, or by mandamus; five in number constitute a board, and when the original number is reduced to seven, the Governor has a power of nomination to supply the vacancies.†

The Council sit in two capacities, Privy and Legislative, in the former the Governor presides, in the latter the senior member, under the title of President, on whom also the temporary Government devolves on the absence, or death of a Governor. Since the appointment of a Bishop, he has been sworn in ex-officio a Member in Council in all the Islands composing his diocese, and where the date of his appointment has preceded that of a Governor, he is also Ordinary.

only been enabled by means of the same gentleman to make the St. Vincent chapter complete) to the intelligence and energetic zeal of Mr. Shephard, the barrister, a resident on the island, as before adverted to.

* The Governor's salary, which he is required by his instructions to apply for on his first meeting the Council and Assembly, is £4,000 currency.

† By a late rule of the Colonial Office, no Councillor can be absent longer than twelve months—after that period his name is directed to be struck out, but no objection appears to his re-admission, at a subsequent period, as the junior member.

The Assembly consists of nineteen members, three for each of the five parishes, two for the town of Kingstown, and the like number for the Grenadines; the qualification of Members for the Parishes and Islands, is fifty acres of land in cultivation, or producing an income of £300. currency a year, and for the town a house of the yearly value of £100.; the titles of the candidates to their property must appear to have been registered in the office twelve months, except in cases of wills, and conveyance of property executed in Great Britain. Electors must have a freehold of ten acres, or a house in Kingstown of twenty pounds yearly value, or of ten pounds elsewhere, registered in like manner. Elections take place under the authority of a writ issuing from the Governor and Council, on an application from the Speaker, to the Provost Marshal General, and the whole regulations, on this subject, are prescribed by an Act of the Legislature, which passed in 1786; these three branches assimilate their proceedings as near as possible to those of Great Britain; their meetings are quarterly, and the Acts that are passed proclaimed by the Marshal, and enrolled in the Registrar's Office. These Acts may be divided into three classes, the first temporary and purely colonial, which take effect immediately on their publication; the second, such as have a clause annexed suspending their operation until His Majesty's pleasure be known; and the third, the permanent laws, which if not confirmed in two years from their enactment, are to be considered as disallowed. In strictness the Governor is not authorized to pass any law, repealing one which may have received the royal approbation, without a suspending clause; but this in the cases of the old laws, has been frequently overlooked. The Attorney-General has a salary of £500. currency per annum, which is in part given to him for framing the bills, which may be required, but he is not obliged to introduce them to either house, and a considerable difficulty has frequently occurred from the want of an accredited person, as the organ of Government, who might introduce

the measures proposed by the crown through the Colonial Secretary to either house. At present the Governor communicates by letters with the President and Speaker, but no member is intrusted with the charge of carrying any bills through the different stages prescribed by the Legislature.

COURTS OF JUSTICE. The supreme court for civil causes is called the Court of King's Bench and Common Pleas, where the Chief Justice presides; his salary is £2,000. currency. There are three other Assistant Justices, who are not professional persons, and act without any salary. This Court holds its sittings for the trial of causes once in every month, from March to August, when executions for debt can be obtained in about ten weeks, from the entering day. The proceedings are regulated by a Court Act. The Court of Sessions for the trial of criminal offences is held twice a year. The Chief Justice is President, and the Members of Council and Judges sit according to seniority. The Court of Error for appeals from the King's Bench and Common Pleas, is composed of the Governor and Council. The Governor is also sole Chancellor, and from these two last Courts an appeal lies to his Majesty in Council.*

THE MILITIA consists of all the free inhabitants between the ages of eighteen and fifty-five, and is formed into one regiment of 580 men, two King's companies of 150 men, and two Queen's companies of 125 men, and twenty-five cavalry, these assemble for exercise once in every month, at the different stations in the island. The legislature has endeavoured to keep up an effective force of white persons by requiring the planters to keep one white person for every fifty slaves, under a penalty of £50. for each deficiency.

The Garrison of British regulars for the protection of the Island, since the peace has been reduced to one wing of a regiment, with a few artillery men, during the war two regi-

* In consequence of the reports of the Commissioners of legal enquiry, it may be fully expected that the whole judicial system of the West Indies will be greatly modified and improved—for the defects of the present must be obvious to the most superficial observer.

ments were the complement, which the Government undertook to furnish, in consideration of the assistance which was given by the Colony at different periods, towards building the forts and barracks, and of maintaining the roads thereto at the public expense of the colony.

THE POLICE is excellent, especially in the town of Kingstown; it is regulated by three Town Wardens who are annually appointed, and a Chief Constable, with very extensive powers; the tread-mill affords an efficient mode of punishment, heretofore unknown in St. Vincent's.

THE REGISTRATION OF REAL PROPERTY is requisite, and the deeds of conveyance must be acknowledged either personally, or by attorney, before the Registrar. The Provost Marshal General executes an office corresponding to that of Sheriff, and inquests are regularly held by the Coroner in all necessary cases.

The commerce of the Island is regulated by the officers of His Majesty's Customs; a Collector, Comptroller, and three Waiters constitute the establishment; the regulations of trade having been much simplified, and amended of late years, by the repeal of several hundred Acts, and consolidating their provisions under six or eight distinct heads. The fees on shipping are now abolished, and the salaries of the officers are defrayed from the dutiable articles imported from foreign ports.

ECCLESIASTICAL. The Church in Kingstown having been destroyed in the hurricane of 1780, the present structure was finished in 1820, and an Act was passed for the building of Churches in the different parishes, each of which is supplied with a minister.

The salary of the Rector of Saint George and Saint Andrew, including a compensation for a house and glebe, is £1,060 per annum; the other salaries are £700 currency, and the Legislature having resolved on the expenditure of £5,000 sterling on ecclesiastical improvements, and the Government having directed a sum arising from the sale of Crown Lands to be appropriated to similar purposes, it may

be confidently assumed, that in a few years, there will be sufficient buildings of every description erected.*

By the Act 6th Geo. IV. c. 88, amended by the 7th Geo. IV. c. 4. His Majesty has graciously erected the West India Islands into two Sees, the salaries of the Bishops payable out of the 4½ per cent. duties are £4,000 sterling each, with a provision for a retiring pension of £1,000 after a service of ten years; and the sum of £4,300 is at the disposal of the Bishop of Barbadoes, for the maintenance of Ministers, Catechists, and Scoolmasters in the Diocese, with a limitation that no Minister's salary is to exceed £300 sterling. This is the first instance of such a provision in the West Indies (except in the case of the Judges in the Prize Courts) and cannot be too highly commended. †

These episcopal appointments have already been of great utility, the inferior clergy have been regulated, and a system adopted of conveying general instruction to the negroes by means of catechists and schoolmasters.‡ The residence of the Bishop is in Barbadoes, from whence he makes occasional visitations to the different Islands in his Diocese, and it is pleasing to add, that all authorities agree in representing the present Bishop as singularly active, and energetic in the

* There are at the disposal of the Crown in St. Vincent, of land *saleable* and fit for *immediate* culture about 2,500 acres in the N.E. quarter; at the N. end about 500; at the N.W. 600; and in the interior of the parishes of St. George, St. Patrick, St. Andrew, and St. David, 500;—in all 4,100, and as much more remotely situate and difficult of access.

† Mr. Shepherd rightly observes, that, if the Government desire to be well and faithfully served by persons adequately qualified to execute the trusts reposed in them, they must secure them a remuneration for their advancing years; in most instances the colonial salaries barely afford a decent maintenance, and many persons have been obliged to continue in office, from necessity, long after they have been enervated by disease, or disqualified from age. Such a system also tends to check any disposition towards the undue acquirement of the emoluments of office, it will be found most beneficial to both parties, and will confer lasting honour on the provident humanity of His Majesty.

‡ The number of places of worship are eleven, capable of containing 2,500 persons, and usually attended by 1,870; the total expense is £3,000.

performance of his spiritual duties towards the more helpless classes of his fellow-creatures.

EDUCATION. The want of education has been a sore evil in the Colonies, but a decided improvement has taken place, under the auspices of the Bishop, and it is to be hoped that in a few years the parochial schools will manifest their utility.* There is a laudable institution by a few coloured persons in Kingstown, for the education of the coloured poor, which with very limited means, has been productive of great advantages, and deserves more patronage and support, than it has hitherto received from the white population. The Legislature has removed the disabilities attendant on colour, and stricken the fetters from the slave, but I agree with the ingenious author I have before cited, that these concessions will be of no actual benefit to that race, unless they become qualified by education and morals, to assume their advanced station in society, and to perform the duties required of them, and this will depend on freedom from commercial restrictions at home as well as on their own exertions to obtain property by their industry, and respect by their integrity.†

* State of public education in 1830: males, 135; females, 74;—total, 209.

† The dependencies within this Government are the islands of Bequia, 3,700 acres, with a very fine harbour, called Admiralty Bay; Union, 2,150 acres; Mustique, 1,203 acres; and Canouan, 1,777 acres. There are also the lesser islands of Balliceaux and Battawia, Myera, Petit St. Vincent, Islet a Quatre, Isle of Wash, Church Island, Petit Nevis, Three Ramiers, Pillories, Savan, Petit Bermuda, Petit Canouan, Barbaroux Island, or Petit Curacoa, Two Taffia Quays, Two Baleines, Two Catholics, Prune Island, Four Tobago Quays, Umbrella Quay and Petit Martinique. The cultivation in all these islands is very much reduced, from the woods having been cut down, and the consequent decrease of rain; the seas abound with fish; many whales make their appearance in February and March, and the air is remarkably fine and salubrious.

CHAPTER VII.

BARBADOES.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — PHYSICAL ASPECT — CLIMATE — POPULATION — PRODUCTIONS — COMMERCE — EDUCATION — PROPERTY — GOVERNMENT, &c.

LOCALITY. This ancient British colony is situated at the S. E. extremity of the great American archipelago, in Lat. 13.5. N.

For the sake of the general navigator, I give the course and distance from Bridge Town, Barbadoes, to St. Pierre, Martinique; and thence to the principal Ports in the Northern direction, down to St. Thomas, with the distance added to each course, for turning in and out of the ports.

PRINCIPAL PORTS.	Course.	Distance. Miles.
Bridge Town to St. Pierre ..	N.W.	134
St. Pierre to Roseau, Dominica	N. by W. ½ W.	36
Roseau to Basseterre, Guadaloupe	N. ½ W.	46
Basseterre to Montserrat ...	N. W. by N.	56
West Point of Montserrat to St. John's, Antigua.....	N. E.	33
St. John's to Charlestown, Nevis.....	W. ½ S.	47
Charlestown to Basseterre, St. Kitts.....	N. N. W. ½ W.	11
Basseterre to St. Eustatius..	N. W.	23
St. Eustatius to Gustavia, St. Bartholomew.....	N. N. E.	25
Gustavia to St. Martin's....	N.W. b W. ½ W.	15
St. Martin's to West End of Anguilla.....	N. by W.	14
Anguilla to S. W. Point of Virgin Gorda	W. by N.	70
Virgin Gorda to Tortola.....	W. ½ S.	10
Tortola to St. John's.....	S.W. by S.	7½
Tortola to Port.....	W. ½ N.	8½
St. John's to St. Thomas, general course.....	W. by N.	16
Whole Distance		552
Distance in smooth water, under the lee of the islands, in the above given directions.....		180

Course and distance from Bridgetown, Barbadoes, to Carenage, St. Lucia; and thence to all the principal Ports in the Southern direction to Port of Spain, Trinidad, with the distance added to each course, for turning in and out of ports.

PRINCIPAL PORTS.	Course.	Distance. Miles.
Bridge Town to Carenage, St. Lucia	N.W. ½ W.	107
Carenage to Kingstown, St. Vincent	S. by W.S.W.	50
Kingstown to St. George's, Grenada	S. S.W. ½ W.	78
St. George's to Scarborough, Tobago..	S. E. ½ E.	97
Scarborough to the Bocas, Trinidad ..	W. S. W.	83
The Bocas to Port of Spain		20
Whole Distance.....		435
Distance under the lee of the islands, in the above given direction, the winds Northerly.....		115
Ditto, winds being Southerly		195

Long. 59.41. W.* extending about twenty-two miles in length and fourteen in breadth, with a surface of 106,470 acres.

GENERAL HISTORY. The early discovery of Barbadoes is involved in obscurity; the island remained unknown and unnoticed for a century after the discoveries of Columbus, and the first indication of its existence in the charts of European navigators, was A. D. 1600. It is said to have been first visited by the Portuguese, who, finding it uninhabited, and rude in appearance, named the isle *Los Barbados*, or as some say in reference to the number of fig trees which from their spreading branches were likened to luxurious beards. The original discoverers left some swine and plants on the isle and abandoned it. In 1605, an English ship, the *Olive*, returning from Guinea, accidentally touched at Barbadoes, landed a part of her crew at the spot, where the *Hole Town* was afterwards built, erected a cross, took possession of the island, and inscribed on several trees, 'James, King of England, and of this island.' Finding no refreshments the crew was reimbarked, and the adventurers proceeded to St. Christopher's, where an English colony had recently been formed. The island was then neglected for nearly twenty years, when some Dutch men-of-war having visited it, reported favourably of its adaptation for cultivation. These particulars having reached Sir Wm. Courteen, an enterprizing London merchant, he endeavoured to effect a settlement on Barbadoes. The beauty and fertility of the island became also much talked of in England in consequence of a ship of Sir Wm. Courteen's having put in there, in stress of weather, and the mariners, on returning home, expatiated on the advantages of the place. The spirit of colonization was at this time exceedingly active in England, (I wish sincerely it could now be revived), and the Earl of Marlborough (afterwards Lord High Treasurer), obtained from James I, a patent for the island to him and his heirs for ever. Sir Wm. Courteen having obtained the sanction of the noble patentee, fitted out two large ships with men, arms, ammunition, and every thing suited to the establishment of a

new colony. One vessel only arrived at Barbadoes, and a town was commenced in February 1625, at the spot where the *Olive* had touched twenty years before, and named *James's* (by some called *Hole*) town. In 1627, James Hay, Earl of Carlisle, stimulated by the representations of Thos. Warner who had been engaged in forming a settlement at St. Christopher's applied to and obtained from Charles I. (who had then newly ascended the throne), a grant of all the Caribbee islands, to be formed into a palatinate or proprietary government, under the name of Cariola. The Earl of Marlborough of course strenuously opposed this enormous grant, as affecting his prior right to Barbadoes, and litigation commenced between the two noblemen, which was compromised on Lord Carlisle agreeing to settle on the Earl of Marlborough and his heirs for ever, an annuity of £300 in lieu of his claim. The Earl of Carlisle's patent passed the great seal the 2nd of June 1627, and the preamble of this singular charter runs as follows:—

'Whereas our well-beloved cousin and counsellor, James Lord Hay, Baron of Sauley, Viscount Doncaster, and Earl of Carlisle, endeavouring, with a laudable and pious design, of propagating the Christian Religion, and also of the enlargement of the territories of our dominions, hath humbly petitioned us for a certain region of islands in our dominions after-named, lying towards the north part of the world, as yet void, and inhabited by savages, who have no knowledge of the divine power, commonly called the Caribbee Islands, containing the islands of St. Christopher, Grenada, Saint Vincent, Saint Lucia, Barbadoes, Martinique, Dominica, Marigalante, Deseada, Todasantos, Guadaloupe, Antigua, Montserrat, Redondo, Barbuda, Nevis, Eustatia, Saint Bartholomew, Saint Martin, Anguilla, Sombrera, and Anegada, and many other islands, found at his great cost and charges, and now brought to that pass to be inhabited by a large and copious colony of English, with certain privileges and jurisdictions belonging to the said government and state of a colony and region to him, his heirs, and assigns, to be granted.'

By the succeeding clauses, his Majesty did, by the same grant, for him, his heirs and successors, make, create and constitute the said Earl of Carlisle, his heirs and assigns, absolute proprietor and lord of the said region; reserving still the allegiance due to his Majesty, his heirs and successors. It was then added, 'And because we have made and appointed the said James Earl of Carlisle true lord of all the aforesaid province, as he to

whom the right belongeth, know ye, that we have authorized and appointed the said James Earl of Carlisle, and his heirs, of whose fidelity, prudence, justice, and wisdom, we have great confidence, for the good and happy government of the said province, or the private utility of every man, to make, erect, and set forth; and under his or their signets to publish such laws as he, the said Earl of Carlisle, or his heirs, *with the consent, assent and approbation, of the free inhabitants of the said province, or the greater part of them thereunto to be called*, and in such form, and when and as often as he or they, in his or their discretion, shall think fit and best. And these laws must all men, for the time being, that do live within the limits of the said province observe; whether they be bound to sea, or from thence returning to England, or any other of our dominions, or any other place appointed, upon such impositions, penalties, imprisonments, or restraint; and if it behoveth, and the quality of the offence requireth, either upon the body or death itself, to be executed by the said James Earl of Carlisle, and his heirs; or by his or their deputy, judges, magistrates, officers, and ministers, according to the tenor and true meaning of these presents, in what case soever: and with such power as to him, the said James Earl of Carlisle, or his heirs, shall deem best. And to dispose of all offences or riots whatsoever, either by sea or land, whether before judgment received, or after remitted, freed, pardoned or forgiven. And to do and perform all and every thing or things; which, to the fulfilling of justice, courts, or manner of proceeding, in their tribunals may or doth belong or appertain, although express mention of them in these presents be not made; yet we have granted full power, by virtue of these presents, them to be made; which laws so absolutely proclaimed, and by strength of right supported, as they are granted, we will enjoin, charge and command, all and every subject and liege people of us, our heirs and successors, as far as them they do concern, inviolably to keep and observe under the pains therein expressed; so as, notwithstanding, *the aforesaid laws be agreeable, and not repugnant unto reason; nor against, but as convenient and agreeable as may be to the laws, statutes, customs and rights, of our kingdom of England.*'

'And because in the government of so great a province oftentimes sudden occasions do fall out, to which it shall be needful to apply a remedy before the free inhabitants of the said province can be called; and for that it shall not always be needful, in such cases, that all the people be called together; we will and ordain, and by these presents, for us, our heirs and successors, have granted to the said James Earl of Carlisle, and his heirs, that he by himself, or his magistrates and officers, in that case lawfully preferred, may make decrees and ordinances both fit and profitable, from time to time, that they may be esteemed, kept and observed, within the said province, as well for keeping the peace as for the better government of the people there living, so that they may be publicly

known to all whom they do concern. Which ordinances we will, within the said provinces, inviolably to be kept, upon pain in them expressed; so that these laws be agreeable to reason, and not repugnant nor against it, but, as far as may be, agreeable to the laws and statutes of our kingdom of England; and so *that those laws extend not to the hurt or discommodity of any person or persons, either to the binding, constraining, burthening, or taking away, either their liberty, goods, or chattels.*'

'We also of our princely grace, for us, our heirs and successors, will straightly charge, make and ordain, that the said province be of our allegiance; and that all and every subject and liege people of us, our heirs and successors, brought or to be brought, and their children, whether then born, or afterwards to be born, become natives and subjects of us, our heirs and successors, *and be as free as they who were born in England;* and so their inheritance within our kingdom of England or other of our dominions, to seek, receive, take hold, buy and possess, and use and enjoy them as their own; and to give, sell, alien and bequeath them at their pleasure; *and also freely, quietly, and peaceably, to have and possess all the liberties, franchises, and privileges of this kingdom and them to enjoy as liege people of England,* whether born or to be born, without impediment, molestation, vexation, injury or trouble of us, our heirs and successors; any act or statute to the contrary notwithstanding.'

Charles soon forgot that he had ever made this grant to Lord Carlisle, and in February 1628, being much pressed by the Earl of Pembroke, the unfortunate monarch made over Barbadoes to his Lord Chamberlain, the Earl of Pembroke, in trust for Sir Wm. Courteen, who, really for his zealous energy, deserved to have had the island bestowed on him in the first instance. Scarcely had this grant been made when the Earl of Carlisle returned from a foreign embassy, and to appease his lordship's resentment at the breach of faith evinced towards him, the irresolute monarch revoked the charter or patent, granted to the Earl of Pembroke, and restored the proprietory rights to his favourite, Carlisle. The proceedings just mentioned had the good effect of stimulating the Earl to improve the territory bestowed on him, he contracted with a company of London merchants for a grant of 10,000 acres of land, on condition of receiving from each settler forty pounds of cotton annually, and the privilege of nominating a governor, or chief. Wolferstone, a native of Bermuda, was commissioned by the Earl of Carlisle as gover-

nor, with the power of Governor-Commander-in-Chief and Captain, to do justice, decide controversies, keep his Majesty's peace, and punish offenders, according to the laws of England and the nature of their crimes. Sixty-four settlers (each entitled on landing to 100 acres of land) arrived in Carlisle Bay 25th July, 1628, commenced the erection of wooden houses, threw a bridge across the river which intersected the ground, and laid the foundation for Bridgetown, the present capital. The Earl of Pembroke's men, who were settled on the leeward of the island, refused to obey the windward, or Carlisle Bay Settlers. Arms were ultimately had recourse to, the windward men triumphed, and while the latter were asserting their right of jurisdiction in Barbadoes, the Earl of Carlisle had a new royal patent, made out in England, confirming in the most explicit and unequivocal manner the former grant. Sir William Tufton was appointed Governor-Commander-in-Chief, in February, 1629. A military force was sent out to keep the leeward men quiet. A council of twelve settlers, appointed to assist the Governor in holding a Courts General Sessions of the Peace, laws were enacted suitable to an infant settlement, and the cultivated or occupied parts of the isle divided into six parishes, viz. Christ Church, St. Michael, St. James, St. Thomas, St. Peter, and St. Lucy.

It would be uninteresting to the general reader, and foreign to the object of my work, to enter into a detailed view of the early history of Barbadoes. As in all new colonies, the inhabitants met with no inconsiderable difficulties,—local feuds were added to domestic privations; but the civil war which raged in England contributed to people and enrich the island, as it had done other places, and, on the downfal of Charles, many respectable families attached to the royal cause found shelter and comfort in Barbadoes. The authority of the Earl of Carlisle in the West Indies may be said to have declined with the regal power at home, and the colony, left to its own government and resources, and under the auspices of commercial freedom, rapidly acquired independence and opulence.

In 1645 the island, under the prudent rule of Mr. Bell, was divided into four parishes, (George's, Philip's, John's, and Andrew's, were added to the before-mentioned) a church built in each, and an officiating minister appointed. A general assembly was instituted, composed of two deputies elected in each parish from the majority of freeholders. The island was divided into four circuits, in each of which a court of law was constituted—defensive fortifications erected around the isle—the militia constituted a formidable force of 10,000 infantry and 1000 cavalry—the total population of the island had increased to 150,000 persons, of all colours and sexes, and the value of property was quadrupled in seven years. This prosperity was not owing to sugar culture, for Ligon who visited the island in 1647, says, that the plantation of the cane had only then recently begun; but it would appear that Barbadoes carried on an unrestricted foreign intercouse with Holland and other countries. The number of slaves in the island at this period is not on record, yet here, as elsewhere, the evils of the system were early felt, for in 1649 a formidable insurrection took place at Barbadoes, and a general day was appointed for the massacre of all the white inhabitants. The plot was discovered by a negro, in gratitude to his master, the day before its contemplated execution, and twenty-eight of the leading negroes were gibbeted, according to the custom of the times.

In 1650, Lord Carlisle, (the son of the first patentee), hearing much of the wealth of the island, which he considered patrimonial property, and desirous of reaping some advantages from the same, executed a lease to Francis Lord Willoughby, of Parham, an active royalist officer, conveying to his lordship all his right and title to the colony for twenty-one years, upon condition that the profits arising from the proprietary right should be mutually shared between them. Charles II., (then in exile), desirous of securing the West Indies for his crown, appointed Lord Willoughby Governor and Lieutenant-General of Barbadoes and of all the Caribbee islands; and the legislature of Barbadoes, on his lordship's arrival, passed an

Act, acknowledging his Majesty's right to the sovereignty of the island, and that of the Earl of Carlisle, derived from his Majesty, and transferred to Lord Willoughby. Barbadoes, always distinguished for its loyalty, exerted itself on this occasion, and equipped several ships of war, which compelled the neighbouring islands to submit to the authority of the crown, as emanating from the chief W. I. Government at Barbadoes. Cromwell, it may be supposed, did not quietly permit this refuge to his royal opponent, and a formidable squadron, under the command of Sir George Ayscue, containing a large body of troops, was despatched for the purpose of reducing the refractory colonists in obedience to the Commonwealth, and with the view of crippling the power of Holland, with which Barbadoes and the other W. I. possessions carried on a lucrative traffic. The far-famed navigation laws were passed, by which the ships of any foreign nation were prohibited from trading with any of the English plantations, without a license from the Council of State.

The Barbadians for some time gallantly defended themselves against the tyranny of Cromwell, and it was not until the Parliamentary forces had laid waste a large portion of the island, the defection of Col. Modiford, and that many had been slain on both sides, that the island was subdued by the Cromwellian power. Sir George Ayscue was appointed Governor after the reduction in 1652, and proceeded to subdue the other islands that had maintained their allegiance to the royal authority. On the restoration of Charles II.,* Lord Willoughby, who had been banished for life from the island, appointed Col. Humphry Walround, a faithful old royalist, superseding Col. Modiford, who proceeded to Jamaica, to be Deputy-Governor and President of the Council of Barbadoes.

Lord Willoughby, in 1662, as lessee of the Earl of Carlisle, renewed his claims on the island. Lord Kinnaird, the kinsman and heir of the Earl of Carlisle, brought forward demands on the settlers amounting to £60,000, and the heirs

* Charles II. conferred the dignity of Knighthood on thirteen gentlemen of Barbadoes, in testimony of their attachment to the royal cause.

of the Earl of Marlborough, who were entitled to a perpetual annuity from the same quarter, claimed a large sum for arrears. To satisfy these claims, now urgently made, a large number of the Barbadians, (by Mr. Kendal) agreed to lay a duty of 4½ per cent. on all native commodities, the growth and produce of Barbadoes, when exported from the island. This impost was estimated at £10,000 a-year. Many Barbadians protested against the perpetual rent-charge of 10 per cent. on their plantations; but, after being submitted to the decision of the Privy Council, it was finally agreed, that the 4½ per cent. fund should be applied towards providing a sufficient compensation to the Earl of Kinnaird, for surrendering his right to the Carlisle charter—to provide for discharging the Earl of Marlborough's annuity—one moiety of the surplus to be paid to Lord Willoughby for the remainder of his lease, the other moiety to the creditors of Lord Carlisle, until the expiration of Lord Willoughby's contract, when, after a salary of £1,200 a-year for the future Governor of Barbadoes, the creditors of the Earl of Carlisle were to receive the entire balance, until their demands were liquidated. Under these conditions (agreed to by all parties) the proprietary Government was dissolved, and the sovereignty of Barbadoes annexed to the British crown. Some of the inhabitants of Barbadoes long protested against the imposition of the 4½ per cent. duties, but the rigorous and prudent administration of Lord Willoughby brought internal peace to the island, while his lordship extended the power of Britain in the western hemisphere*. Col. Christopher Codrington became Deputy-Governor in 1668, and his administration was distinguished by vigilance and circumspection. In 1669, the windward and leeward isles were formed into distinct governments, Guadaloupe being the line of demarcation, and the commerce of the leeward isles was given to Sir W. Stapleton, while Lord Willoughby retained that of Barbadoes and the windward islands, which he kept until 1673.

* Lord Willoughby was lost in a hurricane, near Guadaloupe, while employed in reducing several islands to subjection.

To detail the local affairs of the island would occupy several volumes, I must therefore pass rapidly to a conclusion; in 1722 on the appointment of Governor Worsley, a salary of £6000. sterling per annum was fixed on his Excellency, and provided for by a capitation tax of *2s. 6d.* on each slave—and by a tax on lawyers, patentees, and public officers, &c.—a burthen which the colonists soon found themselves unable to defray. The administration of Lord Howe (commencing in 1733) seems to have been generally applauded; under his generous auspices a free press was established in Barbadoes, and he died at his government in 1735, beloved by all who knew him. In 1780 Barbadoes was ravaged by a terrific hurricane, which lasted for forty-eight hours, and devastated the island; such was the violence of the wind that a twelve pound carronnade was blown from the pier head to the wharf, a distance of 140 yards. Of eleven churches and two chapels, only three were left standing; and not more than thirty houses of the extensive capital of Bridge-town; the Mole-head, which cost the colonists £20,000. was destroyed, and the castle, battery, forts, town-hall, prison and cells demolished; the loss of lives amounted to 3000. and of property to £1,018,928.

Public sympathy was excited at home, Parliament granted a sum of money for the relief of the sufferers, and the citizens of Dublin munificently subscribed £20,000.*

On the 24th of November, 1787, His Royal Highness Prince William Henry (our present Gracious Sovereign) visited Barbadoes in command of the *Pegasus* frigate, and was received with the most ardent demonstrations of affection and loyalty; all ranks vied in their enthusiastic desire to receive the son of their beloved Sovereign with dutiful respect, and on His Royal Highness's departure from the Colony, the House of Assembly voted the Prince a sword of the value of three hundred guineas.

The events which have since occurred do not require much detail—the Colonial Almanac affording complete chronological

* It should be recorded that the house of Latouche and Sons contributed the princely sum of £1,000 for the relief of the Barbadians.

data; hurricanes, earthquakes, slave insurrections, make up the principal features of the latter years history of Barbadoes; sufficient has been stated to give a correct view of our acquisition of the island, and its singular primary proprietary government. As historical data, the following list of the rulers of Barbadoes is appended,—

1625, W. Deane. Gr.; 1628, C. Wolferstone, do.; 1629, J. Powell, do.; 1629, R. Wheatly, do.; 1629, Sir W. Tufton, do.; 1630, H. Hawley, do.; 1633, R. Peers, D. Gr.; 1636, Hawley, D. Gr.; 1638, W. Hawley, D. Gr; 1639, H. Hawley, Gr.; 1640, Sir H. Hunks, do.; 1641, P. Bell, do.; 1650, F. Lord Willoughby, do.; 1651, Sir G. Ayscue, do.; 1652, D. Searle, D. Gr.; 1660, T. Modiford, Gr.; 1660, H. Walrond, Pr.; 1663, Francis Lord Willoughby, Gr.; 1666, H. Willoughby, H. Hawley, Samuel Barwick, Joint Grs.; 1667, William Lord Willoughby, Gr.; 1668, C. Coddrington. D. Gr.; 1670, W. Lord Willoughby, Gr.; 1670, C. Coddrington, D. Gr.; 1672, W. Lord Willoughby, Gr.; 1673, Sir P. Colleton, Bt., D. Gr.; 1674, Sir J. Atkins, Gr.; 1680, Sir R. Dutton, do.; 1683, Sir J. Witham, D. Gr.; 1684, Sir R. Dutton, Gr.; 1685, E. Steed, D. Gr.; 1690, J. Kendall, Gr.; 1694, F. Russell, do.; 1696, F. Bond, Pr.; 1698, R. Grey, Gr.; 1702, J. Farmer, Pr.; 1703, Sir B. Granville, Gr.; 1706, W. Sharpe, Pr.; 1707, M. Crowe, Gr.; 1710, G. Lillington, Pr.; 1711, R. Lowther, Gr.; 1714, W. Sharpe, Pr.; 1715, R. Lowther, Gr.; 1720, J. Frere, Pr.; 1720, S. Cox, do.; 1722, H. Worsley, Gr.; 1731, S. Barwick, Pr.; 1733, J. Dotin, do.; 1733, Scroop Lord Viscount Howe, Gr.; 1735, J. Dotin, Pr.; 1739, Hon. R. Byng, Gr.; 1740, J. Dotin, Pr.; 1742, Sir T. Robinson, Gr.; 1747, Hon. Henry Grenville, do.; 1753, R. Weeks, Pr.; 1756, C. Pinfold, Gr.; 1766, S. Rous, Pr.; 1768, W. Spry, Gr.; 1772, S. Rous, Pr.; 1773, Hon. E. Hay, Gr.; 1779, J. Dotin, Pr.; 1780, J. Cunningham, Gr.; 1783, J. Dotin, Pr.; 1784, D. Parry, Gr.; 1790, H. Frere, Pr.; 1791, D. Parry, Gr.; 1793, W. Bishop, Pr.; 1794, G. P. Ricketts, Gr.; 1800, W. Bishop, Pr.; 1801, Francis Humberstone, Lord Seaforth, Gr.; 1803, J. Ince, Pr.; 1804, F. H. Lord Seaforth, Gr.; 1806, J. Spooner, Pr.; 1810, Sir

G. Beckwith, K. B. Gr.; 1814, J. Spooner, Pr.; 1815, Sir J. Leith, K. B. Gr.; 1816, J. Spooner, Pr.; 1816, Sir J. Leith, Gr.; 1817, J. F. Alleyne, Pr.; 1817, Stapleton Lord Combermere, G. C. B., Gr.; 1817, J. F. Alleyne, Pr.; 1817, S. Lord Combermere, Gr.; 1820, J. B. Skeete, Pr.; 1821, S. Hinds, do.; 1821, Sir H. Warde, K. C. B. Gr.; 1825, J. B. Skeete, Pr.; 1826, Sir H. Warde, Gr.; 1827, J. B. Skeete, Pr.; 1829, Sir J. Lyon, K. C. B., Gr.; 1829, J. B. Skeete, Pr.; 1829, Sir J. Lyon, Gr.; 1832, Sir Lionel Smith, K. C. B. do.

PHYSICAL ASPECT. Barbadoes, although generally level, except in the N. E. quarter, called Scotland (which is about 1,100 feet above the sea)* has a very beautiful appearance, owing to its extensive cultivation, and sloping fields or terraces. The base of the island is calcareous rock, formed of madrepores, and other marine concretions, and is probably of volcanic origin, like the greater number of the surrounding isles. Bridge-town the Capital extends along the shores of the beautiful Bay of Carlisle for nearly two miles in length and half a mile broad, with about 20,000 houses. The handsome and spacious barracks of St. Ann's, with their fine parade, are at the southern extremity of the town. The square, with Nelson's statue, is well laid out, and many of the houses are handsome. The Government-house, called Pilgrim, is about half a mile from Bridge-town. The fort of St. Anne, though small, is capable of making a good defence; it contains several excellent magazines stored with ammunition, and an armoury, with many thousand stand of arms in perfect order. The soil varies much; in some districts it is sandy and light, in others a rich black earth, and in several places spongy. Here and there is found a red clay of considerable depth, and the light whitish earth broken into a grey mould, or hardened into lumps resemble chalk, but actually consist of indurated argillæ, bleached by exposure to the weather.

CLIMATE, VEGETATION, &c.—Owing to the flatness of the island, leaving it open to the sea-breeze, and its extensive culti-

* In some deep vallies there are the remains of the primitive forests which formerly covered the whole island.

vation, Barbadoes is peculiarly healthy; and the details given of the range of the thermometer, &c., under St. Vincent's will, with some modifications, answer for Barbadoes; a similar remark will apply to vegetation. One peculiarity is deserving of notice, four distinct crops of sugar-cane, maize, tobacco, and sweet potatoes, may be seen in the same field, and in alternate drills.

Population. The inhabitants of this colony rapidly increased from its first settlement. In 1674 their numbers were calculated at 50,000 whites, and 100,000 coloured or negroes, thus giving 500 mouths to every square mile, while China, with its 350,000,000, has not more than 288 to the square mile.*

The population at different periods of the last century was, so far as we have returns,

Years.	Whites.	Blacks.
1724	18,295	—
1753	—	69,870
1786	16,167	62,953

The slave population from 1817 to 1832, was—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Total.
1817	35,354	42,139	77,493	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1820	36,733	41,612	78,345	3,654	3,758	7,412	3,317	3,286	6,603	250
1823	36,159	42,657	78,816	4,178	4,058	8,236	3,487	3,228	6,715	297
1826	36,995	43,556	80,551	4,788	4,814	9,602	3,409	3,304	6,713	322
1829	37,691	44,211	81,902	4,748	4,502	9,250	3,494	3,320	6,814	670
1832	37,762	43,738	81,500	..	..	9,975	..	..	8,587	1,089

* In 1676, Barbadoes, on 100,000 acres, contained 70,000 whites and 80,000 blacks—total 150,000 souls. This great population was effected by granting out land, in lots of ten acres each, to poor settlers, and white servants who had fulfilled the term of their indentures. Some, perhaps many, of these lots were subsequently sold when the island became too populous for the extension of sugar plantations; and the late occupiers, with the purchase money, proceeded to settle in other islands, where land was cheap and plentiful.

The total population and the division into parishes is thus stated:—

PARISH.	Area in Sq. Miles	Whites.*	Free Coloured.	Slaves.	Total.
St. Michael - - -	15	4,965	3,045	17,990	26,000
St Philip - - -	23	1,207	307	9,840	11,354
St. Lucy - - - -	13	900	75	5,345	6,320
St. George - - -	16	927	175	7,381	8,483
St. Andrew - - -	13	600	300	3,650	4,550
St. Joseph - - -	9½	890	90	4,251	5,231
St. John - - - -	12	908	172	5,487	6,567
St. Peter - - - -	13	- -	1,500	6,617	8,117
St. Thomas - - -	13	- -	750	6,000	6,750
Christ Church - -	22½	1,700	120	10,000	11,820
St. James - - -	12	700	50	4,300	5,050
Total - -	162				

COMMERCE. The trade of Barbadoes has fluctuated very much at various periods owing to hurricanes and bad seasons, as well as to the equally injurious fiscal restrictions of man; its early exports were—

Years.	Sugar.			Molasses.	Rum.			Ginger.	Aloes.		Cotton.	
	Hds.	Trs.	Bar.	Hds.	Hds.	Trs.	Bar.	Bags.	Hds.	Gds.	Bags.	Lbs.
1786	8,659	82	3,419	114	5,199	39	693	8,070	1	409	8,864	
1790	9,998	123	2,935	0	2,331	0	261	4,565	0	475		1,287,088
1791	11,333	60	2,346	30	3,008	0	411	3,735	0	770		1,163,157
1792	17,073	125	2,698	188	5,064	0	512	3,046	0	515		974,178

In 1828 the colonial produce exported from Barbadoes was—Muscovado sugar, 26,790 hogsheads, 2,662 tierces, 835 barrels; Cotton, 1,747 bales; Molasses, 2,268 puncheons; Rum, 371 puncheons; Aloes 738 packages.

* Among the inhabitants of this island, there is a numerous class between the great planters and the people of colour, termed Barbadians; a circumstance which forms a striking difference between Barbadoes and the other colonies. Many of them are descended from the original settlers, and have no precise knowledge when their ancestors first arrived. They accordingly regard this island as their nation and only abode, and do not, like the planters or the negroes, look back to the scenes of infancy as their better home.

The value in money of the trade of the island in 1830, was—

Imports from				Exports to			
Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Value.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Value.
£203,417	93,834	71,869	369,120	624,734	136,842	15,118	776,694

Principal Articles of Export from Barbadoes, from 1822 to 1830, were:—

Years.	Aloes.	Sugar.	Rum.	Years.	Aloes.	Sugar.	Rum.
		hds.				hds.	
1822	576 packages.	12,822	4 pun.	1827	3,5966 lbs.	17,593	12 punch.
1823	16,557 lbs.	26,525	236 cases	1828	No Returns.		
1824	32,327 ..	21,639	3,747 gall.	1829			
1825	35,763 ..	18,565	22,352 ..	1830	738 pack.	25,371	
1826	62,484 ..	20,329	113 pun.	1831			

REVENUE. The income is raised as in the other islands. The following was the Barbadoes' gross Revenue and Expenditure, in £ sterling from 1821 to 1830:—

		Expenditure.					Expenditure.		
Years.	Revenue.	Civil.	Military.*	Total.	Years.	Revenue.	Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	13,127	16,679	2,592	19,271	1826	21,622	27,140	2,500	29,640
1822	17,421	13,795	2,697	16,492	1827	20,352	20,242	1,723	21,965
1823	29,431	23,511	2,499	26,010	1828	20,157	18,122	1,677	19,799
1824	26,125	12,009	1,654	13,663	1829	19,290	18,339	1,604	19,943
1825	21,223	22,878	1,747	24,625	1830	16,349	16,899	1,666	18,566

SCHOOLS, EDUCATION, &c. There is a church and chapel in each of the eleven parishes of the island, capable of containing 8,000 persons in all.† Besides the central school for 160 white boys, founded by Lord Combermere,‡ there are many others of more recent establishment for both sexes and for all colours.

* By *Military Expenditure*, I wish it to be understood, throughout this work (unless otherwise expressed), the charges incurred by the colonists for British military forces or garrisons.

† The expence of the clerical establishment is £4,050 per annum.

‡ The central school is a large and convenient building, nearly opposite the King's house, and within two minutes walk of the cathedral. Mr.

The situation of Codrington College, according to a recent visitor, is one of the most delightful that can possibly be conceived; surrounded by hills on every side, possessing the superior advantages of the sea breeze, an unbounded view of the Atlantic, and refreshed by a clear stream of water, collected in front into a small lake. The students receive their board and education for £35 per annum, and are examined and ordained by the bishop if intended for the church.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT. The government of the island is constituted in a manner similar to that already described under Jamaica; namely, a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a Representative Assembly. The Governor's legislative authority is entirely negative, he can only recommend subjects for consideration to the Assembly, and his concurrence is required before any bill can become law, such concurrence, however, not being valid beyond three years, unless sanctioned by the royal confirmation. In his executive capacity the Governor is entitled to nominate, and of course remove the

Coleridge says, it is impossible to speak in too high terms of this excellent institution, which reflects upon Lord Combermere, who promoted, and the Legislature, which liberally seconded the undertaking, the utmost credit. At present, about 160 white children are educated here, precisely upon the plan of the national schools in England; all of them are fed during the day, and the major part are well clothed. The beneficial effects of this charity are already confessed on all hands; principles of sobriety and devotion are instilled into their minds, and habits of regularity and peaceful subordination are enforced. From this class of boys the master tradesmen, mechanics, overseers, and even managers, are now supplied; and when it is considered how much the comfort of the slaves must depend upon these persons, their education will be found to be, as it really is, a direct measure of general amelioration. A girls' school has also been founded, under the auspices of the Bishop; they are both favourite institutions, and the chief people in the colony spare neither pains nor expence in strengthening or maintaining them. There is also a large school for coloured children, with coloured managers, established under the Bishop's superintendence; and several more have been opened by the Bishop, at the Government expence, every colour are admitted—the only conditions being cleanliness and constant attendance. Instruction is gratuitous.

officers of militia; the right, however, is seldom exercised beyond the choice of Colonels, who nominate their Lieutenant-Colonels, Majors, and Captains, who in turn appoint their subalterns. The *Governor*, with the consent of the Council, has power to dissolve the General Assembly, and to issue writs for a new election; with the concurrence of five members he may suspend any member of Council, unless it be an extraordinary occasion requiring secrecy, when his power is absolute, subject to explanation at home. If there be less than seven Members of Council resident in the island, the Governor may fill up the number (to twelve,) *pro tempore*, for the dispatch of business. As *Chancellor*, his Excellency has the custody of the great seal, and presides in the Courts of Error and Equity, in which courts the Judges being Council, he only sits *primus inter pares*, his vote or opinion being of no greater consequence than that of any other member. As *Ordinary* he takes probate of all testamentary writings; in case of litigation establishes or annuls the will; and in default of executors appointed by the testator, His Excellency issues letters of administration according to the rules of law. As *Vice-Admiral* he issues his warrant to the Judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court to grant commissions to privateers, &c. The militia force is strong and well appointed; there are six regiments of several battalions each, together with a corps of life guards, and a numerous and brilliant staff.* The Governor of Barbadoes has a controlling authority over the British windward islands and possessions, each of which has its Lieutenant-Governor. I do not think the arrangement a good one, the rather so when St. Vincent's (for example,) possesses its own Legislative Assembly; economy of a Governor's salary seems to have been the only object sought and attained; but, though frugality is extremely desirable, there are considerations of far greater importance than mere pecuniary advantages.

* In 1666, Barbadoes had an effective military force of 20,000 infantry and 3,000 cavalry composed of the colonists.

CHAPTER VIII.

ST. LUCIA.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—ASPECT—CLIMATE—POPULATION—COMMERCE—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—REVENUE—MONIES—GOVERNMENT, &c.

Locality. This wildly beautiful island is in lat. 13.50 N., long. 60.58 W., about thirty-two miles in length, from N. to S., and twelve broad, contains 37,500 acres of land, was—

History—discovered on St. Lucia's Day, and first settled on by the English about 1635, since which period it has undergone various changes, being sometimes declared neutral, (as by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle,) next in the possession of the French, then captured or transferred to the British, and *vice versa*. By the treaty of Paris in 1763, St. Lucia was allotted to France; and Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Tobago to England; during the American war, in 1779, it was taken by the British, but restored to the French by the peace of 1783; it was conquered at the commencement of the French revolutionary war in 1794, evacuated in 1795, and retaken in 1796; by the treaty of Amiens it was restored to France in 1801, and recaptured by us in 1803. The detail of the hard fought battles for the acquisition of this isle would be out of place, it may suffice to state that the fortune of war, in 1803, has finally left it an English colony, with a French population, manners, language, and, I may add, feelings.

Physical Aspect. The first approach to this island, (which is divided longitudinally by a ridge of lofty hills,) from the S. is very remarkable. An accurate observer and delightful writer thinks it offers one of the most striking combinations of various kinds of scenery ever witnessed.

'Two rocks, which the gods call Pitons, and men Sugar-loaves, rise perpendicularly out of the sea, and shoot to a great height in parallel cones, which taper away towards the

summit like the famous spires of Coventry. These mountains,* which are feathered from the clouds to the waves with evergreen foliage, stand like pillars of Hercules on either side of the entrance into a small but deep and beautiful bay. A pretty little village or plantation appears at the bottom of the cove; the sandy beach stretches like a line of silver round the blue water, and the cane fields form a broad belt of vivid green in the back-ground. Behind this, the mountains, which run N. and S. throughout the island, rise in the most fantastic shapes, here cloven into steep-down chasms, there darting into arrowy points, and every where shrouded or swathed, as it were, in wood, which the hand of man will probably never lay low. The clouds, which within the tropics are infallibly attracted by any woody eminences, contribute greatly to the wildness of the scene; sometimes they are so dense as to bury the mountains in darkness; at other times they float transparently like a silken veil; frequently the flaws from the gulleys perforate the vapors and make windows in the smoky mass, and then again the wind and the sun will cause the whole to be drawn upwards majestically like the curtain of a gorgeous theatre.'

While sailing along the shore the variety of scenery is exquisitely beautiful; the back ground continues mountainous, but every three or four miles appear the most lovely little coves and bays, fringed with the luxuriant cane-fields, and enlivened by the neatly laid-out mansions of the planters; while the flotillas of fishing and passage, or drogher boats, with their long light masts and latteen sails, add life and animation to the scene. On the west coast there is an excellent harbour, called the *Little Careenage*, with three careening places, one for large ships, and the others for frigates. It is accessible only to one vessel at a time, (the entrance defended

* The Author of *Six Months in the West Indies* (Henry Nelson Coleridge, Esq.), calls them '*rocks*;' they are rather mountains, round and high, and appear to have been volcanoes. In one deep valley there are several ponds, where the water bursts up with great violence, and retains some of its heat even at the distance of 6,000 toises from its source.

by several batteries) but capable of holding thirty ships of the line.

The plains throughout the island are well watered, and the mountains clothed with the finest timber.

Castries, the only town in the isle, is situate at the bottom of a long and winding bay of the same name. The fort is situate on the summit of *Morne-fortune*, which is about two miles of exceeding steep road, or path, from Castries. Mr. Coleridge thinks the road perilous; it is in a zig-zag of acute angles, and is thus described by that delightful traveller;—

'As it rains nine months out of the twelve in St. Lucia, there are deep bricked trenches or channels traversing the path at each turn for the double purpose of carrying off the water and of checking a redundant population. But when I got to the top—oh never will that moment be forgotten by me!—I remember staring without breath or motion as if I had been really enchanted. I never saw heaven so close before. The sky did not seem that solid ceiling with gold nails stuck in it which it does in England, but a soft transparency of showery azure, far within which, but unobscured by its intervention, the great stars were swimming and breathing and looking down like gods of Assyria. Not only Venus and Sirius and the glorious Cross of our Faith in the south, and

Charlemagne amongst the starris seaven

low in the north, shone like segments of the moon; but hosts of other luminaries of lesser magnitude flung each its particular shaft of splendor on the tranquil and shadowy sea. As I gazed, the air burst into atoms of green fire before my face, and in an instant they were gone; I turned round, and saw all the woods upon the mountains illuminated with ten thousands of flaming torches moving in every direction, now rising, now falling, vanishing here, re-appearing there, converging to a globe, and dispersing in spangles. No man can conceive from dry description alone the magical beauty of these glorious creatures.'*

* 'There are two sorts, the small fly, which flits *in and out* in the air,

Pigeon Island is six miles distant from the harbour of St. Lucia, and, in a military point of view, is of great importance to the colonies, being within a short distance of Martinique, and commanding a view of every ship that may enter or depart from that island;—it is moreover valuable for a very fine and extensive anchorage between it and the N. part of St. Lucia. The isle is about half a mile in length N. and S. and a quarter broad, the side towards the sea (W.) is a perpendicular cliff, from the ridge or crest of which there is a gradual descent to the opposite shore, and level ground enough to erect a barrack for 500 men. A barrack and hospital has been constructed on this healthy spot, and it is one of the most salubrious that can be expected in a tropical clime. St. Lucia is divided into Basseterre, the low or leeward territory, and Capisterre, the high or windward territory. The former is well cultivated and most populous; but the climate is unwholesome from the abundance of stagnant waters and morasses. The latter division is also unwholesome, but it becomes of course less so as the woods are cleared away. Indeed the health of all tropical countries will be found to be in proportion to their cultivation.

Population. In 1777 the island contained whites, 2,397; free coloured, 1,050; slaves, 10,752; total, 14,199.

The population of each parish, according to the latest returns before me, was, 1*st district*, Castries, 4,420; Gros Islet, 1,431; Anse la Raye, 1,036: *2nd district*, Soufriere, 4,116; Choiseul, 1,375; Laborie, 1,718; *3rd district*, Vieux Fort, 1,399; Miconel, 1,164; Deunerie, 650; Dauphin, 666; total, 17,975.

the body of which I have never examined; and a kind of beetle, which keeps more to the woods, and is somewhat more stationary, like our glow-worm. This last has two broad eyes on the back of its head, which, when the phosphorescent energy is not exerted, are of a dull parchment hue; but, upon the animal's being touched, shoot forth two streams of green light as intense as the purest gas. But the chief source of splendour is a cleft in the belly, through which the whole interior of the beetle appears like a red-hot furnace.'

The slave population from 1816 to 1831 was—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Total.
1816	7,394	8,891	16,285	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1819	6,811	8,228	15,039	385	344	729	1,087	906	1,993	51
1822	6,297	7,497	13,794	478	446	924	691	643	1,334	69
1825	6,325	7,392	13,717	591	616	1,207	556	483	1,039	184
1828	6,280	7,381	13,661	587	606	1,193	586	416	1,002	219
1831	6,119	7,229	13,348	581	549	1,130	573	475	1,048	366

The Board of Trade returns for 1831 state the inhabitants at—*uhites and free coloured**, males, 1,690; females, 1,838: *slaves*, males, 5,242; females, 6,129—total, males, 6,932; females, 7,967. The births for the year, 451; deaths, 430; and marriages, 19. There are 4,190 persons engaged in agriculture; in manufactures, 670; in commerce, 86.

Produce and Agriculture. The number of stock in the island is, horses 578; horned cattle, 2,239; sheep, 1,741; and goats, 594.

The quantity of agricultural produce in 1831 was, sugar, 5,561,815 hogsheads; coffee, 149,571 hogsheads; cocoa, 33,515 hogsheads; rum, 90,687 gallons; molasses, 224,700 gallons†. The number of acres of land under each crop was—in sugar canes, 4752; coffee, 696; cocoa, 316; provisions, 4,049; pasture, 4,685—total, 11,321; leaving uncultivated—acres, 26,134.

* Another account estimates the *whites* at 570 males, and 500 females; *free coloured*, 1,745 males and 2,238 females.

† The difficulty in obtaining correct statistics of any of our possessions is very great, particularly in reference to many of the W. I. islands. The return given in the text for St. Lucia is derived from the Board of Trade statements; but the bond population for 1831 quoted, varies from the slave table given from the House of Commons library. So also the following, from private authority, differs in regard to agriculture. The stock in St. Lucia is estimated at horses, 708; horned cattle, 3,022; sheep, 1,884; goats, 769. The produce of sugar, 7,683,800 lbs.; molasses, 120,000 gallons; rum, 28,000 gallons; coffee, 50,000 lbs.; and cocoa, 30,000 lbs.

COMMERCE. In 1810, the official notice of the exports was £43,830, and of imports £193,743. The total value of the exports for 1831 was £64,878, and of imports £83,003, employing a total shipping *inwards*, tons, 20,382; *outwards*, tons, 20,839. The greater portion of the trade is with great Britain, but a large part of it is still carried on with France.

The principal articles of export, from 1822 to 1831, were,

	Sugar.	Coffee.	Rum.
1822*	7,745 hds.	357 tierces.	501 puncheons.
1823	6,061,702 lbs.	362,129 lbs.	31,950 gallons.
1828	7,248 hds.	269 tierces.	304 puncheons.
1829	6,836 ..	No Return.	
1830	1,188 ..	do.	274 ..
1831	5,776 ..	694 tierces.	

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES. The *Weights* in use are the French pound and quintal; the pound = 2 marc (Paris); the marc = 8 oz.; the oz. = 8 gros, the gros = 72 grains; the quintal = 100 French lbs.; the French lbs = 17 oz. 9 dr. English; quintal of 100 French lbs. = 109 English.

The *Measures* are (land or square measure); the carré, containing 3 acres, 78 perches, 28 feet square (Paris measure) or 10,000 square paces; the acre = 100 square perches, or 2,644 paces, 11 feet; the perch = 26 paces, 5 feet, 72 inches square, or 9 square toises; the square toise = 36 square feet, or 2 paces, 11 feet, 72 inches square; the square pace = 12 square feet, and 30 square inches; the square foot = 144 square inches; the square inch = 144 square lines, (long measure); the toise = 6 feet French; the foot = 12 inches; the inch = 12 lines; the French foot = $12\frac{2}{3}$ inches British; (cloth measure) the aune or ell = 3 feet 8 inches; and it is subdivided into one-half, one-third, one-fourth, and one-eighth; the ell = 1 yard $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches. (Wine measure) gallon = 2 pots; 1 pot = 2 pints (Paris measure), 1 pint = 2 chopines; 1 chopine = 2 raquils; 1 raquil = 2 muces. (Dry measure) the barrel = 44 quarts, or 55 pots; the half barrel = 27 pots; the quarter ditto = $13\frac{3}{4}$ pots; the half quarter ditto $6\frac{7}{8}$ pots.

FINANCE. The revenue of the colony is derived from cus-

* These are the only years in the Colonial Office documents.

tom duties, a capitation tax, licences, fines, stamp duties, &c. The only consecutive years of revenue and expenditure before me are *—

	Revenue.	Expenditure.		Revenue.	Expenditure.
1817	£ 8,305	11,188	1822	£ 9,448	8,031
1818	9,553	10,694	1823	10,713	6,687
1819	11,471	14,391	1824	6,825	8,530
1820	10,300	7,336	1825	10,986	11,345
1821	9,886	8,091	1826	12,978	13,096

Surplus revenue, £1,075.

In 1831, the revenue was £9,452, and the expenditure £10,143.

MONIES. Accounts are kept in pounds, shillings and pence; but the value of the circulating medium is thus stated:—12 deniers = 1 sol; 2 sols and 6 deniers = 1 dog; 6 dogs, or 15 sols = 1 bit; 8 dogs, or 20 sols 1 livre; 9 livres = 1 current dollar; 10 livres = 1 round dollar; 20 livres = one pound currency. There is no paper money in circulation.

GOVERNMENT. The inhabitants have their affairs administered by a Governor and Council, with French laws, where they are not adverse to the British; I hope soon to see St. Lucia, as well as every other English colony, with its own legislative assembly.

* Another return gives as follows:—St. Lucia gross Revenue and Expenditure in pounds sterling.—

	Revenue.	Expenditure.		Revenue.	Expenditure.
1820	£10,300	7,336	1826	£10,435	12,664
1821	9,886	8,091	1827	No Return.	
1822	9,448	8,031	1828	11,941	10,923
1823	9,629	6,042	1829	12,647	12,063
1824	11,188	8,166	1830	12,531	12,044
1825	10,770	12,147	1831	9,542	10,143

The inhabitants of St. Lucia have recently complained of their heavy taxation, and well they may when £10,000 per annum is wrung from so few colonists.

CHAPTER IX.

DOMINICA.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — ASPECT — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE — POPULATION — RESOURCES — COMMERCE — FINANCE — GOVERNMENT, &c. &c.

LOCALITY. The island of Dominica is situated in 15.25 N., 61.15 W., about twenty-nine miles in length, and sixteen in breadth, and containing 275 square miles, or 186,436 acres.

HISTORY. The discovery of this island was made by Columbus,* on Sunday, the 3rd Nov. 1493, and so named by the great navigator; its right of occupancy was claimed by the three kingdoms, of England, France, and Spain; but the right of possession remained undecided, and Dominica was considered a neutral island by the three crowns, till the year 1759, when, by conquest, it fell under the dominion of Great Britain; and was afterwards ceded to England by the treaty of Paris, February, 1763. On the cession of the island to the English, commissioners were appointed under the great seal, and sent out there with authority to sell and dispose of the lands by public sale, to English subjects in allotments 'of not more than 100 acres of such land as was cleared; and not exceeding 300 acres of woods to any persons who should be the best bidder for the same.' These allotments were disposed of for the benefit of the crown, and were confirmed to the purchaser by grants, under the Great Seal of England, with conditions in each grant, 'that every purchaser should pay down 20 per cent. of the whole purchase money, together with sixpence sterling per acre, for the expence of surveying the land; and that the remainder of the purchase money should be secured by bonds, to be paid by equal instalments, in the space of five years, next after the

* It was the first land seen on his second voyage, after having been twenty days at sea from the Canaries.

date of the grants. That each purchaser should keep on the lands, so by him purchased, one white man, or two white women for every 100 acres of land, as it became cleared, for the purpose of cultivating the same. Or, in default thereof, or non-payment of the purchase money, the lands were to be forfeited to His Majesty, his heirs, and successors.' The Commissioners were also empowered to execute leases to the French inhabitants, of such lands as were found in their possession on the surrender of the island; which lands were again leased to those inhabitants, who were desirous of keeping them in possession, on consideration of their taking the oaths of allegiance to his Britannic Majesty.

These leases were executed for a term not less than seven, some fourteen, and others for forty years absolute, renewable at the time limited for the expiration of the same. With conditions in every lease, 'That the possessor, his heirs, or assigns, should pay to his Majesty, his heirs, or successors, the sum of two shillings sterling per annum, for every acre of land of which the lease should consist. And that they should not sell or dispose of their lands without the consent and approbation of the Governor, or Commander in chief of that island for the time being.' The Commissioners were likewise empowered to make grants, under the Great Seal, of lots to poor settlers, to such English subjects as should be deemed fit objects of his Majesty's bounty, in allotments of not more than thirty acres of land to any one person. With authority also, to the said Commissioners, to reserve and keep such lands, in the most convenient parts of the island as they should think proper, for fortifications, and the use of His Majesty's army and navy; together with a boundary of fifty feet from the sea shore, round the whole island; and reserving all mines of gold and silver, which might thereafter be discovered there, for the use of his Majesty, his heirs, and successors.

By these measures 96,344 acres (half the inland,) were disposed of in lots of from fifty to 100 acres, which produced £312,090 sterling. The prosperity of the island rapidly in-

creased under a system of free trade; but the happiness of the inhabitants was interrupted on the capture of the island, by a large French force, from Martinique, under the Marquis de Bouillé, in 1778, after a gallant resistance on the part of the British colonists, by which they secured for themselves highly honourable terms; the subsequent advantages of which were however frustrated by the tyranny of the new French Governor, the Marquis Duchilleau, whose memory is deservedly held in the deepest scorn. After five years' brutal treatment by the French, our colonists were rejoiced on the restoration of the island to England at the peace of 1783. During the war of 1805, a devastating descent was made on the Island of Dominica by a formidable French squadron; and although Roseau, the capital, was burned, the colony was preserved to Great Britain by the skill of Sir George Prevost, and the gallant behaviour of the colonists. The island has ever since remained under the dominion of Great Britain.

PHYSICAL ASPECT. Dominica is one of the volcanic isles of the West, with lofty rugged mountains*, and fertile intervening valleys, watered by about thirty fine rivers and numberless rivulets, springs, and waterfalls, which descend with great impetuosity from the hills, and, under the umbrageous canopy of lofty and magnificent forests, form the most romantic cascades†. Roseau, the capital, is situate in the parish of St. George, (about seven leagues from Prince Rupert's Bay), on a point of land on the S. W. side of the island, which

* Their height has been thus noted: —Morne Diablotin, or Terre Firme, 5,314 feet above the sea; Laroche, 4,150; Coulisboune, 3,379; Outer Cabrite, 542; Inner ditto, 430; Morne Crabier, 485; Morne Bruce, 465; Daniole, 329. The heights of the forts and batteries are, Scots' Head, 231 feet; Melville's, 147; Magazine Bat. 320; Hospital ditto, 440; Fort Young, 440; Fort Shirley, 153; Barracks at Douglas Bay, 126; Grand Savannah, 170; Layon, 160.

† About six miles from Roseau, almost in the centre of the island, and on the top of a very high mountain, surrounded by other more lofty hills, is a large lake of fresh water, covering a space of several acres, and in some places unfathomable; it spreads into three distinct branches, and has a very extraordinary appearance.

point forms two bays—Woodbridges to the N. and Charlotteville to the S. 'The landscape behind the town is beautifully grand; indeed the whole prospect from the edge of Morne Bruce, a lofty table-rock occupied by the garrison, is one of the very finest in the West Indies. The valley runs up for many miles in a gently inclined plane between mountains of irregular heights and shapes, most of which are clothed up to their cloudy canopies with rich parterres of green coffee, which perfumes the whole atmosphere, even to some distance over the sea; the river rolls a deep and roaring stream down the middle of the vale, and is joined at the outlet of each side ravine by a mountain torrent, whilst at the top, where the rocks converge into an acute angle, a cascade falls from the apex, in a long sheet of silvery foam. Beneath, the town presents a very different appearance from what it does at sea; the streets are long and spacious, regularly paved, and intersecting each other at right angles; there is one large square, or promenade ground*, and the shingled roofs† of the houses, tinged with the intense blue of the heaven above them, seem like the newest slates, and remind one of that clear and distinct look which the good towns of France have when viewed from an eminence.‡

The roadstead of Roseau (it can scarcely be called a harbour) is very capacious and safe, except in the hurricane months, (from the end of August to October), when the sea, from the southward, tumbles into the bay in a terrific manner, sometimes rising to an alarming height.§ The fortifications of Roseau, namely, Young's Fort, Melville's Battery, Bruce's Hill, and Fort Demoulin, are very strong and commanding positions. Prince Rupert's Bay, on the N. W. of

* Roseau has never recovered the effects of a conflagration ordered or caused by the Marquis Duchilleau, in 1781.

† Shingles are thin planks or slips of pine imported from North America, and used universally throughout the West Indies in lieu of slates.

‡ Six Months in the West Indies.

§ On the last day of September, 1780, the sea suddenly rose to the height of 21 feet perpendicular above its usual level, destroying several houses in front of the beach and wrecking many vessels.

the island in St. John's parish, is three miles broad, one and a half deep, and safe and commodious enough for the whole British navy at all seasons: it is surrounded by two high mountains, called the Cabrittes, the inner of which is about 500, and the other 600 feet in perpendicular height, both out of the reach of any other elevated land. Fort Shirley lies between the two Cabrittes, with a rich plain of 100 acres in extent at its base, and in the event of war the fortifications on these heights might be rendered as strong as Gibraltar. The grand Savanna, nine miles from Prince Rupert's Bay, and twelve from Roseau, is a fine fertile elevated plain, upwards of a mile in extent, and at a good distance from the neighbouring mountains, whose terraces jut out from their breasts; around whose declivities flourish the richest verdure, while murmuring cascades of babbling brooks, burst through the luxuriant vegetation, or roll along the hilly avenues, surrounded by magnificent piles of rocks, sometimes black and bare, sometimes green, with countless traceries of lovely creepers, interspersed with ferns and palms.

Geology. Dominica, as before observed, is volcanic: the soil in some places is a light brown coloured mould, that appears to have been washed down from the mountains, mixed with decayed vegetable matter. In the level country, towards the sea coast, and in many districts of the interior, it is a fine, deep, black, mould, peculiarly adapted to the cultivation of the sugar cane, coffee, cocoa, and all other articles of tropical produce. The under stratum is a yellow, or brick clay, in some parts; in others, it is a stiff terrace, and frequently very stoney. Large quantities of excellent freestone have been quarried in the Savanna, and at one time it formed an article of export to Guadaloupe and elsewhere.

Several of the mountains of this island are continually burning with sulphur, of which they emit vast quantities*. From these mountains issue various springs of mineral waters, (whose virtues are extolled for the cure of many disorders) which in some places are hot enough to cook an egg in

* Attwood's Dominica.

less time than boiling water. The sulphureous exhalations from these springs are very strong, often too intensely penetrating for continued respiration, while the soil, or sulphur and sand, around them in the *Souffrieres*, is too hot for the feet, and scarcely firm enough to tread upon. Owing to the dense vegetation of the island, and the general apathy of W. I. planters for any thing but sugar and coffee, we know nothing further of the geology of Dominica. It is stated that gold and silver mines exist, and that the latter metal was at one time to be found in abundance.

THE CLIMATE may be said to resemble that of England very much, with the exception of its greater moisture. The following thermometrical register is for Roseau, the capital (Lat. 15. 18. N.; Long. 61. 22. W.) but in the interior, and on the mountains the heat is much reduced, and indeed so cold as to render woollens indispensable for body clothing, and bed coverng.

Meteorological Register for Eleven Months at Roseau.

MONTHS.	THERM. Max.	THERM. Med.	THERM. Min.	WINDS.	REMARKS.
January ..	83	76	70	E.N.E. and N.	Cloudy atmosphere.
February..	81	74	69	E.N.E. and S.E.	Cool—showery.
March....	84	77	71	N.E. to S.E.	Fair, sometimes cloudy.
April	85	77	70	E.N.E. and S.E. and by S.	Ditto, moderate breeze.
May.....	86	79	74	N.E. to S.E. and E.	Calm and clear.
June	88	81	75	S.E. and E. to N.E.	Ditto, and sultry and rainy.
July.....	88	71	75	ditto.	Ditto, and cold nights.
August ..	88	80	74	S.E. and N.E.	Ditto, Ditto, thundr. storms.
September	87	80	74	S. and S.E.	Generally fair, rain.
October ..	86	80	75	N.E. to S.E.	Cloudy and fair do.
November	85	75	69	ditto.	Fine, dry atmosphere.

The wet season commonly sets in about the end of August, and continues till about the beginning of January, but with frequent intervals of fine weather. The severity of the rainy season is usually in the months of September and October, when very heavy continual rain falls for days together; some-

times for two or three weeks. The island indeed is seldom without rain in some part or the other; and often during a promising day, the traveller meets with such sudden and heavy showers, that almost in an instant wet him to the skin, in spite of either umbrella or great coat. When the rains are violent and of long continuance they do great mischief in the island among the plantations, carrying away large tracts of land, with coffee, plantain trees, sugar canes, and ground provisions, which are all hurried into the sea. To the towns also they do great damage, causing the rivers to overflow their banks, or breaking out in fresh places, sweeping off houses, or whatever else stands in the way of these destructive torrents.

Thunder and lightning is seldom so severe in Dominica as in many other parts of the West Indies; neither are earthquakes so frequent or so destructive. It has been asserted that soon after the English first took possession of the island, it was split in several places by one of those awful convulsions of nature; and in particular, a large chasm was made in a mountain called Demoulins, so deep, that, although it was several times attempted, it never could be fathomed; the traces of this remarkable circumstance have, however, long since disappeared.

Animals, &c. The only native quadruped is the coney; about the size of a rabbit, with the head, ears, eyes, nose, mouth, and teeth exactly like those of a rat, but with a body, legs, and hoofs like those of a hog, and a very short tail covered with bristly hair; it springs on its hind legs like a rabbit; running with great speed when pursued, and making a noise like a guinea-pig. European domesticated animals and poultry all thrive, and there are numerous wild hogs and goats in the island. Snakes, lizards and guanas * abound; frogs, or toads, of an enormous size (crapaux) are very numerous, and much esteemed as an article of food; the flesh, when fricaseed, being preferred by the English as well as

* For a description of this large lizard (from two to three feet long,) vide Guyana. Mr. Attwood says they can be caught by whistling which lulls them asleep, when a slip knot fastened at the end of a long stick is suddenly jerked over the head and drawn tight.

French to chickens, and when made into soup recommended for the sick, especially in consumptive cases.

The forests abound with wild pigeons, mountain-ring-neck doves, and ground doves, *diablotins*, and a variety of melodious and other small birds; among which the mountain whistler, the thrush, and wren; with the singing, whistling and chirping of which the woods resound in a most delightful manner. The diablotin, thus called from its ugly appearance, is nearly the size of a duck, and web-footed, with a big round head and crooked bill like a hawk, and large full eyes, like an owl: the head, part of the neck, and chief feathers of the wing and tail are black, while the other parts of its body are covered with a fine milk white down; the whole appearance being very singular. The diablotin feeds on fish, flying in great flocks to the sea-side at night time, with hideous screams like the owl, which it resembles in its dislike to day-light. The nests are made in holes in the mountains, and the flesh is considered a delicacy, particularly when salted.

Land crabs of three varieties (white, black, and red) are most plentiful; the black and red crabs are considered excellent eating; when in season the females are full of a rich glutinous substance called the eggs, which is perfectly delicious; epicurean planters have crab-pens (after the manner of fowl-coops) for fattening these luxuries; the white crab is said to be poisonous, from its feeding on the leaves and blossoms of the mahaut tree. The grogo worm (vide Guyana) is another Dominica delicacy. The entomological field is full of variety for the naturalist, among which the sawyer and blacksmith flies are very curious—as also the free-mason and *vegetable* flies; the latter it is said buries itself in the ground, where it dies, and from its body (which may be found perfect at the root as when alive) springs up a small plant, resembling the coffee-tree, with small leaves. [Attwood's Dominica.]

The rivers and rivulets are plentifully stocked with excellent fish,* the principal of which are mullets, crocroes,

* The frey, or fry, or spawn of the fish which cover the rivers of Dominica twice or thrice every year, is esteemed one of the greatest delicacies.

pike, eels, suck, and cray-fish;—the shores of the island abound in excellent sea-fish.

Vegetation. Dominica is one of the best watered of the Caribbee islands, and, with its rich soil, may be naturally expected to have a luxuriant vegetation. Under the head of Guyana, a brief description of the forest trees has been given for the W. I. possessions generally, though it was originally drawn up for Dominica: it will be sufficient therefore, to to state, that the woods afford a vast supply of excellent timber, consisting of locus-wood, bully-tree, mastic, cinnamon, rose-wood, yellow-sanders, bastard-mahogany, iron wood, several species of cedar, and various other sorts useful for building houses, vessels, and canoes,—for furniture, for dyeing, and other necessary purposes. The trees are of uncommon height, and by far exceed in loftiness the tallest timber in England; their tops seem to touch the very clouds, which appear as if skimming swiftly over the upper branches. Many are of enormous girth, and the seeds of different trees, being scattered by the wind, fall into the heart of the same plant, and thus become incorporated with the tree on which they are seen growing. Among other valuable trees in the woods of Dominica is the gum tree. The circumference of the body of this tree is generally very great, and its timber is, on that account, made into canoes, by digging or burning out the inside, and shaping the log into form. The gum falls from the body and branches of the tree in great quantities, in substance like white wax:—it was found very serviceable to the planters of that island during the time it was in possession of the French; the gum being used instead of oil, (which could not then be had,) to burn in lamps in boiling-houses when making sugar. The Romish priests of Dominica use it likewise in their censors at funerals, and other ceremonies of their church, on account of its delightful aromatic smell when burning; it is supposed to contain virtues which might be valuable in medicines, were they better known.*

The timber also of this tree, as well as that of several

* Attwood's Dominica.

others in the woods, make good shingles for covering houses and staves for sugar and coffee casks. Several fine sloops and schooners have likewise been built here, and esteemed for their strength and durability. Cabbage-trees are in great plenty, and serviceable, as their trunks sawed, or split, make good laths, or rails, for cattle-pens, being very durable; the branches and leaves are used for thatching of houses; and the cabbage part of them is excellent eating; when boiled it tastes much like the bottom part of an artichoke; it makes also a good pickle.

The size of the ferns (whole forests of which are found in the dips and recesses of the hills,) is very remarkable, some of them rise to the height of twenty-five feet, with the branches as finely pennated, and their colour as vivid and fresh, as the dwarfish and lowly but lovely English fern.

Population. At Dominica, as elsewhere, European colonists have destroyed the natives. In the year 1792, Dominica contained 938 caribs, and 349 French occupied the part of the coast which had been abandoned by the natives, and which they cultivated by the aid of twenty-three free mulattos, and 338 slaves. At the peace of 1763, the island contained 600 whites, and 2,000 blacks; and, in 1788, the population consisted of 1,236 whites;* 445 free negroes; and 14,967 slaves.—Total, 16,648.

The population, as given in the Board of Trade returns for 1831, whites and free-coloured, males, 1,120; females, 2,538; slaves, males, 6,859; females, 7,373.—Total males, 8,979; females, 9,991.—Grand total, 18,970.

The slave population has thus decreased:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Total.
1817	8,624	9,335	17,959							
1820	7,919	8,635	16,554	729	704	1433	915	833	1,748	113
1823	7,482	8,232	15,714	691	673	1364	818	709	1,527	103
1826	7,362	8,030	15,392	659	650	1309	766	727	1,493	206
1831										

Commerce. It may be expected, from the foregoing state-

* At present there are about 840 whites.

ment, that the trade of the settlement has undergone great changes. During the year ending 5th of January, 1788, its exports were,—

Sugar 1,302 cwt.; Rum 63,392 gal.; Molasses 16,803 gal. Cocoa 1,194 cwt.; Coffee 18,149 cwt.; Indigo 11,250 lbs.; Cotton 970,816 lbs.; Cotton 161 cwt.; Hides, dye woods, &c. £11,912 10*s.* 9*d.*

In 1831 the total value of the exports was £118,761 sterling, and the imports £81,835.—[For a detail of the importations of sugar, coffee, &c. into Great Britain, *vide* Appendix and General View of the West Indies.] The shipping entering *inwards* for the same year was 214, and 11,709 tons; *outwards* 213, and 11,256 tons. The principal articles of export from 1826 to 1830 were,—

Years.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Rum.	Molass.	Years.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Rum.	Molass.
	hds.	cwts.	pun.	pun.		hds.	cwts.	pun.	pun.
1826	3178	13,350	326	740	1829	3805	1,096,223 lbs.	659	786
1827	2957	1,193,359 lbs.	331	833	1830	4071	1,811,473 ..	873	254
1828	3888	2,546,635 ..	548	1,136	1831				

FINANCE. The revenue is raised generally as in the other West India colonies. Its amount for 1831 was but £6,300, while the expenditure was £28,765,* the difference being made up by Parliamentary grant. The island is quite adequate to every proper civil expense;—any extra military strength should, in part, be defrayed by the mother country for the benefit of all the possessions.

Dominica gross Revenue and Expenditure in pounds sterling.†—

Years.	Revenue, Colonial and British.		Expenditure.			Years.	Revenue, Colonial and British.		Expenditure.		
	Col. Rev.	Parliamentary Grant.	Civ.	Mil.	Total.		Col. Rev.	Parliamentary Grant.	Civ.	Mil.	Total.
1821	6211		5862	636	6498	1827	6102		4488	1,214	5,702
1822	4841		6686	544	7230	1828	1386	23,899	8400	20,663	29,063
1823	5689		4922	557	5479	1829	7530	21,962	8898	20,427	29,325
1824	5932		4206	752	4958	1830	6327	23,762	7421	22,672	30,093
1825	8810		7705	778	8483	1831	6360	22,614	7926	20,839	28,765
1826	8222		7999	792	8791	1832					

* Of this sum £20,839 was for garrisons.

† It will be observed that this island has its revenue assisted from the British Treasury as a military station of importance.

GOVERNMENT, &c. There is a Lieutenant-Governor, a Council of Twelve, and a Representative Legislative Assembly of nineteen Members to administer the affairs of the colonists; and there are courts of Grand Session, of Common Pleas, of Complaint and of Petty Sessions.

The militia is an excellent body of men, little inferior to regular troops, and under the same regulations as in the other islands.

There is a public free-school, with 140 male and forty female scholars, at an annual expense of £130—and education is making considerable progress. Fourteen places of worship exist in the colony, at an expense of £340; and if we take the small number of prisoners for 1831 (ten males and one female) as a criterion, the morals of the population are favourable. On the whole, Dominica, from its admirable situation, strong fortifications, fine climate and fertile soil, is a very valuable colony.

A part of the crown lands admirably adapted for cultivation consists of a large run of woodland, known by the name of the *Lazon Flats*, extending across the island to Paguon or Commissioners' Bay, and comprising a surface of 20,000 acres, covered with the most valuable and durable timber, nearly on the same level, and watered by a great number of small streams, forming the Mahout and Lazon rivers on the W. side, and the Quanary and Pagoua rivers on the E. of the island. This land is stated by the intelligent Surveyor-General of the island, Mr. Finlay, to be admirably adapted to the cultivation of cocoa, coffee and all kinds of provisions; large pastures might easily be formed for cattle; its elevation above the level of the sea is from 800 to 1,000 feet; the general temperature 68 to 75 Farenheit; and there are no local impediments but a want of funds, or it may be said of population, to demonstrate the advantages which would arise from Europeans colonizing this delightful West India island.

CHAPTER X.

MONTSERRAT.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY—PRODUCTIONS—POPULATION—COMMERCE—GOVERNMENT, &c.

LOCALITY. This romantic isle * in 16. 47. N. Lat., 62. 13. 25. W. Long., 22 S. W. of Antigua, the same distance N. W. of Guadaloupe, and S. E. of Nevis; being about twelve miles long, seven and a half broad, and thirty-four in circumference, and containing forty-seven square miles, or about 30,000 acres.

HISTORY. The isle was discovered and named by the sailors of Columbus *Montserrat*, a name expressive in the Spanish language of its broken and mountainous appearance.

* I cannot abstain from paying a tribute to genius, and at the same time to the beauty of the West India isles, as evinced in the following truly poetic apostrophe of Mr. Coleridge, which though some may think out of place in a work of this sort, I am far from agreeing with them. I would delight to witness the blending of the muses' labours with those of the statists, that the elegance of the former might lighten the (to some) cheerless and uninviting array of figures of the latter; and wherefore should I desire it otherwise? are not the heaviest toils and most arduous enterprises of man soothed and cheered by the presence and encouraging smiles of woman? Does not the soft and lovely moss deck the sterile mountain's brow? thus should it be with statistics and poesy:—

Beautiful islands! where the green
Which Nature wears was never seen
'Neath zone of Europe;—where the hue
Of sea and heaven is such a blue,
As England dreams not; where the night
Is all irradiate with the light
Of stars like moons, which, hung on high,
Breathe and quiver in the sky,
Each its silver haze divine
Flinging in a radiant line,
O'er gorgeous flower and mighty tree
On the soft and shadowy sea!
Beautiful islands! brief the time
I dwelt beneath your awful clime;
Yet oft I see in noonday dream
Your glorious stars with lunar beam;
And oft before my sight arise
Your sky-like seas, your sea-like skies,
Your green banana's giant leaves,
Your golden canes in arrowy sheaves,
Your palms which never die, but stand
Immortal sea-marks on the strand,—
Their feathery tufts like plumage rare,
Their stems so high, so strange and fair!
Yea! while the breeze of England now
Flings rose-scents on my aching brow,
I think a moment I inhale
Again the breath of tropic gale.

In 1632 it was first settled on by Sir Thomas Warner, under the protection of the British Government; about 1664, in the beginning of the reign of Charles II. it was taken by the French, but restored to the English at the peace of Breda, and has continued ever since under our flag.

Physical Aspect. Like many other islands in its vicinity, Montserrat most probably owes its origin to a volcanic eruption; like them it runs from S. E. to N. W., is equally mountainous, broken, and intersected; on the N. the extremity of the mountain chain terminates in a bold head-land coast, close to which vessels may approach with safety, but there is no landing, and scarcely any anchorage along the coast; the land slopes gently down to the shore, or rather ascends from it, like the W. side of the island, by a succession of round conglomerate hills, overtopping each other in pleasing undulations until they reach the mountain base.

On the S. there is no approach for vessels of any description until they get to the westward; the sea for a mile or two is studded with immense rocks and shelving banks of coral, which prohibit even the approach of boats; at this point the island springs up at once, and nearly perpendicular, to the height of 1,500 feet; from thence the mountains begin to accumulate, throwing out branches nearly at right angles E. and W., of unequal magnitude, as if for supporters, to those originally formed; subsequently they advance and shoot up to 2,500 feet, stretching across to the N. extremity, and terminating in the abrupt head-land above-mentioned.

The mountains in many places are totally inaccessible in consequence of their declivities forming steep precipices of clay-stone, and being separated from each other by immense perpendicular chasms, several hundred feet deep. These gullies, and the mountains, are richly clothed to the very summit with lofty woods, and all the variety of beautiful shrubs and plants peculiar to a tropical mountain region. On the S. W. side of the chain is a small *souffriere*, situate 1,000 feet above the sea in a *dell*, formed by the approximation of

three conical hills—the scenery around which is grand and beautiful.* No marshes exist, but a small lake is situate on

* The road from Plymouth (the capital of Montserrat,) to the *Souffriere* lies at first along the margin of the sea, winding inwards by a gentle acclivity towards the mountains, and is thus beautifully described by Mr. Coleridge, whose language I quote, that it may not be thought I am prejudiced in favour of the West Indies—

'The path was like one of my native Devonshire lakes: no primroses or violets were there, indeed, but the snowy amaryllis (pancratia Caribbea), drooped her long and delicate petals like a love-sick girl; the thrice gorgeous hibiscus was unveiling his crown and feathers of scarlet, and the light limes and darker orange trees, which formed a verdant hedge on either side, were exhaling their perfumed incense to Him who made them so beautiful and so good. A thin grey cloud obscured the sun, whilst an Atlantic breeze blew gently and freshly upon my face and open neck. The air was as cool as on a May morning in England, but so inexpressibly soft, so rare and subtle to the senses, that I may think the ether which angels breathe cannot be purer stuff than this. After this I nearly broke my neck in a dry gulley which was about as good a bridle-path as the steps to the top of St. Paul's. The gully ended in one of those green Savannas which nature has ofttimes so mysteriously cleared in the midst of the impenetrable virgin woods of tropical regions. No difference of soil or situation can be the cause; you may lean your back against the frontier tree of a forest which no axe or torch have ever invaded, and stretch your body on the meadow turf where scarcely a weed can be seen. There is no man to fell these trees or divert their growth; there is no hedge or wall or trench to impede their march; but God said to the Forest as he said to the Sea, 'Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther.' The view was beautiful; behind me the woody mountain rose into the clouds, before me it descended into a long grassy slope to the edge of the sea; on my left hand to the south, the broad and irregular eminences of Guadaloupe presented the appearance of a continent; to the north Redonda shone like an emerald in the midst of the blue waves, and beyond it stood the great pyramid of Nevis, cut off from sight at one third from its summit by an ever-resting canopy of clouds. The wind was so fresh, the air so cool, the morning-dew so healthy and spangling, that I might have forgotten, but for the deep beauty that was around me, that I was still within the tropics. I seemed to have left all languor and listlessness below, and really felt the strength, the spirits, and the elasticity of youthful life in England.

'We began to descend a circuitous and over-arched path to the vale of

the top of a high hill on the west side of the mountains, about two miles from Plymouth, which remains full the whole year.

Plymouth, the capital is small, but extremely well built, and the houses constructed of a fine grey stone, have a substantial and comfortable appearance.

Geology. The same geological features mark Montserrat as are to be found in the neighbouring isles; many of the *rocks* might be termed vast masses of *clay* of various hues and colours. The conical hills abound with carbonate of lime, ironpyrites, and aluminous earth. The superstrative soil is in general dry, light, thin, gravelly, and thickly covered with blocks of clay and sandstone, except in the vallies where the loamy earth is deposited by rains.

Climate. The Montpellier of the W. is the term given to this Indian isle, which has long been celebrated for the

Soufrière. The whole of the bottom of the (dell) valley is broken into vast and irregular masses of clay and lime-stone, which are scattered about in the utmost confusion, and render it a laborious task to scramble and leap from one to another. The surface of the ground is hot everywhere, and so much so near the streams of water which ran between the fragments that I could not keep my foot half a minute upon it. The water at its source boils up violently, and very gradually cools as it finds its way in a thousand meanders to the sea. A thick vapor slowly rises upwards till it meets the wind, which cuts it off at a straight line and drives it down to the coast. The sides of the mounds of clay are entirely crusted with pure alum, formed by the constant action of the sulphuric acid of the water and the exhalations. In the midst of all this there is a green and luxuriant vegetation of bushes and creepers; some of the flowers were marvellously beautiful, and seemed to me to be peculiar to the spot. The mountains, which rampart round this solitary glen, are of a skeyey height; they appear indeed higher than they really are, for their lancet peaks are never seen except dimly and at intervals through the vast and moving masses of clouds, which are first driven from the east against the other side of the sierra, then are pressed upwards, and at last come rolling and tumbling over the summits into the vale below. The wood which clothes every inch of Chance's Mountain is soft, level, and uniform, feathering him with a grass-like plumage as an Indian warrior, whilst every branch and every leaf bends devotedly forwards to the setting sun under the unceasing breath of the Trade-wind.'

peculiar elasticity of its atmosphere, the majestic grandeur of its picturesque and lofty mountains and bewitching scenery. The temperature of course varies according to locality. On the windward and leeward sides, and according to the elevation above the sea, the air is generally cool and dry;—the seasons are similar to those of the neighbouring isles; it is subject to hurricanes, but their visitation are not severe or frequent.

POPULATION. This island, like many of our W.I. possessions, was at one time more densely peopled by European colonists than it is at present. In 1648 there were 1,000 white families, with a militia of 360 effective Europeans. In 1791 there were about 1,300 whites, and 10,000 negroes.*

The white population is now (exclusive of King's troops and their families,) males, 175, females, 213; free-coloured, males, 234, females, 320.

Another return gives the white and free-coloured at males, 467, females, 677; slaves, males, 2,859, females, 3,350—total males, 3,326, females, 4,027—Grand total, 7,353. The increase and decrease of the slave population, since 1817, was—

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Total.
1817	3,047	3,563	6,610	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1821	3,032	3,473	6,505	329	281	610	318	279	597	40
1824	2,878	3,400	6,278	313	289	602	327	286	613	32
1827	2,667	3,395	6,262	314	328	642	265	264	529	44
1831										

* Montserrat had Irish colonists for its early settlers, and the negroes to this day have the Connaught brogue curiously and ludicrously engrafted on the African jargon. It is said that a Connaught man, on arriving at Montserrat, was, to his astonishment, hailed in vernacular Irish by a negro from one of the first boats that came alongside—'Thunder and turf,' exclaimed Pat, 'how long have you been here?'—'Three months,' answered Quashy, 'Three months! and so black already!! *Hanum a jowl,*' says Pat, thinking Quashy a ci-devant countryman, 'I'll not stay among ye;' and in a few hours the Connaught man was on his return, with a white skin, to the emerald isle.

There are six public or free schools, with 298 males, and 390 female scholars, and five places of worship, capable of holding 1,000 persons.*

PRODUCTIONS, COMMERCE, &c. The details enumerating staple products as given under the other islands answer for Montserrat, the sugar and rum of which are much esteemed.† The exports of sugar in 1830, was 1,408 hogsheads; and of rum 982 puncheons; the value of the exports £29,729; and of the imports, £17,781, shipping inwards, 5,824 tons, outwards, 6,576.‡

GOVERNMENT. The executive is embodied in the Government of Antigua, but the islanders enjoy their separate Council and House of Assembly, the former consisting of six members and the latter of eight, i. e. two from each of the four districts into which the island is divided. The gross annual revenue of the isle is about £2,500.

* Since the foregoing pages went to press I have found, among my parliamentary documents, the following census of Montserrat in 1828—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites,	139	176	315
Free coloured,	337	481	818
Slaves,	2,923	3,324	6,247
Total	3,399	3,981	7,380

of the population 4,600 were engaged in agriculture, 30 in manufactures, and 40 in commerce. In 1830 the births were 233, and the deaths 33.

† Indigo was formerly raised in great quantities.

‡ This little island, in common with Barbadoes, Antigua, Nevis, St. Kitts, and Tortola, is suffering under the grievous exaction of the four and a half per cent. duties, which have amounted since their first establishment to the enormous sum of £6,851,640. sterling!

CHAPTER XI.

ANTIGUA.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—ASPECT—GEOLOGY—CLIMATE—VEGETATION—ICHTHYOLOGY—POPULATION—COMMERCE—REVENUE—GOVERNMENT, &c.

LOCALITY. This fertile island is situate in lat. 17.3 N. long. 62.7 W. 40 miles N. of Guadaloupe, 25 N. E. of Montserrat, 30 S. of Barbuda, extending in parallel lines from Friar's Head in the E. to Peyrson's Point in the W., 15¼ miles; containing from Shirley's Heights in the S. to Boon's Point in the N. 11½ miles, being about 20 miles long, about 54 in circumference, and containing 108 square miles, equivalent to 69,277 acres.

HISTORY. Antigua was discovered by Christopher Columbus, on his second voyage, in 1493, and named by him, from a church in Seville, Santa Maria de la Antigua. Next to Barbadoes and St. Christopher's it is the oldest British colony in the leeward isles, having been settled by Sir Thomas Warner* with a few English families in 1632. In 1666 a French armament from Martinique and Guadaloupe, assisted by some Caribs, got temporary possession of the island, and plundered the planters unmercifully. By the treaty of Breda the island was in 1688 finally settled under the British dominion,† and by means of free trade, and beneath the auspices of the Codrington family, rapidly prospered.

* Antigua was granted to Lord Willoughby, of Parham, by Charles II. in 1663.

† Want of space has unavoidably compelled me to omit the notice of local events in each colony; an occurrence, however, which took place in Antigua, deserves being chronicled, not less for its daring and sanguinary nature than because it has no parallel in our Colonial annals. Colonel Daniel Parke (a man whose character has been alternately condemned and praised,) succeeded, in 1706, to the Government of Antigua,

PHYSICAL ASPECT. Antigua is nearly of an oval shape, with an extremely irregular coast, indented with numerous bays, and almost surrounded by islets, rocks, and shoals, which render the approach to it very dangerous on every side except to the S. W. More than one-half of the island on the N. E. is low, in some places rather marshy, and interspersed with gentle acclivities and swelling eminences, which, if less denuded of trees, would present the beautiful hill and dale scenery of England. Towards the S. and S. W. the elevation of the land gradually increases, forming round backed hills of a moderate height, generally running E. and W. intersected by cultivated vallies, and partially cloathed with small trees and brushwood. The greatest elevation (computed at 1210 feet) is on the Sheckerley range of mountains, called Boggies Hill, about six miles to the W. of Monks Hill. The highest district may be said to take its rise from Falmouth, and to continue with various elevations to Five Island Harbour. The height to the N. E. and S. W. is not considerable, but on the latter part the hills are occasionally bold and precipitous, forming numerous ravines and vallies, their summits being extemely irregular, sometimes round,—at other times conical, and occasionally tabular; the rest of the island may, as a general feature, be said to consist of broad slopes, and repeatedly occurring undulations.

No island in the W. Indies can boast of so many excellent bays and harbours, but they are all, except those of St. John, English Harbour, and Falmouth, (which require pilots)

vacant by the death of Sir Christopher Codrington. During four years of Colonel Parke's administration, party spirit and Colonial feuds rose to the greatest height; the House of Assembly refused to be dissolved by the Governor; the Colonists finally rose, *en masse*, in arms against Parke, who, with the aid of the Queen's troops, gallantly defended himself for some time, until many of the soldiers were killed, and the Governor and several of the officers wounded; the unfortunate Parke was then dragged into the streets, his cloaths torn from him, and his back broken with the musket stocks, in which condition he soon expired.

difficult of access.* St. John's, the capital,† is irregularly laid out, pretty large, and built on the N. W. side of the island, at the head of a large but not deep harbour, the N. side of

* The other bays and harbours are St. Freeman's (at the entrance of English harbour.) Rendezvous Bay, Morris Bay, Five Island Harbour, Lydesenfis Bay, Parham, Nonsuch, and Willoughby harbours, and Indian Creek, contiguous to Freeman's Bay.

† Mr. Coleridge thus beautifully describes his feelings on entering the harbour of the capital of Antigua—

'This is, without exception, the prettiest little harbour I ever saw. The extreme neatness of the docks, the busy village which has grown up in their vicinity, the range of hills of various shapes and colours, which encircle the inland sides, and the rocky Ridge which frowns over the mouth, with its Union, and cannons, and ramparts, presents such a combination of tropical beauty, and English style and spirit, as I never saw elsewhere in the West Indies.

'I was very pleasantly surprised with the look of the country. Antigua is so generally spoken of as a dry and adust place, where the earth refuses to yield water for the use of man, that I received more than ordinary pleasure in gazing on the gentle wooded hills and green meadow vales which decorate the interior of the island. Antigua on a larger scale is formed like Anguilla, that is, without any central eminences, but for the most part ramparted around by very magnificent cliffs, which slope inwards in gradual declivities. From some of these rocks, especially near the parsonage of St. Philip's parish, one of the finest panoramic views in the world may be obtained. The whole island, which is of a rough circular figure, lies in sight; the grand fortifications on the Ridge and Monk's Hill silently menace the subject fields; St. John's rises distinctly with its church on the north-western horizon, whilst the woods which cover the sides and crest the summit of Figtree Hill just break the continuity of sea in the south-west. The heart of the island is verdant, with an abundant pasturage or grassy down, and the numerous houses of the planters, embosomed in trees, have more of the appearance of country mansions in England than almost any other in the West Indies. The shores are indented in every direction with creeks and bays and coves, some of them running into the centre of the plantations like canals, some swelling into estuaries, and others forming spacious harbours. Beyond these, an infinite variety of islands and islets stud the bosom of the blue sea, and stand out like so many advanced posts of defence against the invading waves. They are of all shapes and sizes, and are given up to the rearing of provisions and the maintenance of a

which is partly formed by an elevated rock, called *Rat Island*,* about midway up the harbour, and connected with the main land by a causeway, which is submerged at high water. From St. John's to the extreme N. and N. E. of the island the land is generally very low, interspersed with numerous ponds and marshy hollows; but, with these exceptions, the surface of the whole is sufficiently varied to prevent the accumulation and stagnation of water on its surface. Monks-hill (a military station) gradually rises from the bottom of Falmouth Bay, and, as it ascends, becomes precipitous till surmounted by Great George Fort,† at the height of 625 feet, commanding to the N. and N. E. an extensive view of a

great number of cattle. From the same hill, when the western sky is clear, Guadaloupe, Montserrat, Nevis, and St. Kitt's may all be distinguished by the naked eye.

'The tortuous descent of Figtree Hill, though not so rich and imposing as the mountains and vallies of Trinidad, is yet a landscape so exquisitely beautiful that no painter or poet, who had once seen it, could ever forget the sight. A prodigious number of forest trees grow on the tops and declivities of the cliffs, and luxuriant festoons and knots and nets of evergreen creepers connect them all together in one great tracery of leaves and branches. The wild pine sparkled on the large limbs of the wayside trees; the dagger-like Spanish needle *(bidens pilosa)*, the quilled pimploe *(cactus tuna)*, and the maypole aloe *(agave Americana)*, shooting upwards to twenty feet with its yellow flowering crown on high, formed an impenetrable mass of vegetation around the road, and seemed fixed on purpose there to defend the matchless purple-wreaths or lilac jessamines, which softened the dark foliage amongst which they hung, from being plucked by the hand of the admiring traveller. Meanwhile a vigorous song of birds arose, and made the silent defile ring with the clear morning sound of European warblers, in the midst of which, and ever and anon, some unseen single creature uttered a long-drawn quivering note, which struck upon my ear with the richness and the melancholy of a human voice. Many persons have remarked the extraordinary tones of this bird, but I could not learn any name for it. It is the love-lorn nightingale of a silent tropic noon.'

* On this isle a regiment was stationed during the war, but the buildings are now solely used as a Colonial hospital.

† *Great George Fort at Monk's Hill* extends over about ten acres of ground. It was constructed by the colony, at a very great expense, as a

highly cultivated country, overlooking the bay below the peninsula of Middle Ground, English Harbour, and the Ridge, whilst in the distant horizon are to be seen Guadaloupe, Montserrat, and in clear weather Nevis and St. Christopher's. English Harbour is a very complete dock-yard, on a small scale, surrounded by hills, on one of which at the N. E. the naval hospital is situate. With the exception of a few scanty rivulets amongst the hills, the whole island is destitute of running water, and the wells, heretofore dry, have proved brackish; ponds, and tanks are, therefore, the mainstay of the planters. The plan of boring for water should be adopted.

Geology. The soil of the high lands is of a red clay, argillaceous, with a substratum of marl; in the low lands it is a rich dark mould, on a substratum of clay. The most superficial strata occupy the N. and E. parts, and are of a calcareous formation, and the outline of the district is in round hills and knolls, similar to those found in the chalk districts of England. Through the stratum of marl which appears on the surface run layers and irregular masses of limestone, containing a variety of fossil shells, nodules of calcareous spar, cellular and chrystalized quartz, chalcedony, agate, and coral-lines, both in a calcareous and silicious state. A calcareous sandstone is also found in this marl formation, composed of

place of refuge for the wives and children of the inhabitants, in the event either of insurrection or foreign invasion: permission being given to them, under certain restrictions, to build houses for the reception of their families. These houses have fallen in ruins. The fortress is still supported by the Colony, and, from its commanding situation, has very properly been selected as a signal station, displaying to most parts of the island information of the arrival of mails from *England*, which is first communicated by signal from *Rat Island*, in the harbour of *St. John*.

From this elevated point, on one side, an extensive country of plantations, stretching to the extreme verge of the opposite shores of the island, forms a most singular and pleasing contrast with the scene which the different eminences, and the fortifications and harbours already noticed, present on the other. The town, or rather village of Falmouth, lies immediately under the brow of this hill to the southward.

silicious particles, carbonate of lime, and a little oxyde of iron. A breccia also frequently appears, consisting of an agglutination of fragments of different coloured porphyries. No bones of the larger animals have been found in this formation. The coarse chert, or flint, is seen in irregular masses on the surface, breaking into sharp angular blocks, and containing a great quantity of petrified wood and casts of shells. Petrified wood is also found on the surface of the conglomerate and marl formations, often so delicate and beautiful, that the colour of the wood and the distinctive form of its fibre are perfectly preserved. Agate, cornelian, and chalcedony, are frequently seen intermingled in the same specimen. Nitrate of potass, like a hoar frost, covers the flat oozy shore which bounds the bay of Falmouth on the N. and E. On a general view, the geological formation of the island may be said to consist of marl, conglomerate chert and trap.* Marl forms the greater part, and extends over the whole N. and N. E. part; trap, the S. W.; conglomerate, an intervening section, extending inland from St. John's Harbour, and chert, embracing a section with the latter segment. The fossils and petrified woods found in Antigua, when polished, are exquisitely beautiful.

Climate. Owing to the elevation of the land, and the absence of dense and lofty woods, visible in Jamaica, Dominica, &c., the climate of Antigua is dry, and the rainy season so uncertain, that sometimes a great part of the hur-

* Dr. Nugent divides the island into four distinct classifications. The range of mountains, or rather highlands, in the S. W. quarter, consisting of unstratified conglomerate, composed of masses of trap, breccia, wacké, porphyry, greenstone, &c. which are embedded in a clay matrix with brownish decomposing chlorite baldagé. Parallel with this range inland, a different formation appears, consisting of a claystone conglomerate, containing silicified wood, coralline chert, agate, amygdaloid, porphyry slate, bloodstone, &c. in a matrix of an intense green colour. The N. and E. districts have a calcareous formation subordinate to the lowest beds, of which, and nearly in the centre of the island, are extensive irregular masses of coarse chert, containing a prodigious quantity of casts of shells.

ricane season pass away without rain. The dry season generally commences in January, continuing to April or May, and from June to the end of the year the rains are usually abundant. Hurricanes seldom occur,* and when they do are less devastating than in some of the other islands; slight shocks of earthquakes are not unfrequent, but latterly they have seldom occasioned any damage.† Owing to the great dryness of the climate, the temperature is less subject to the variations observed in the other islands; heavy dews are not often experienced, and the thermometer seldom ranges more than 4° in the 24 hours. On the ridges, or hills, the temperature is considerably modified by the sea breezes, or trade winds, which occasionally shift a few points to the N. and South.

The following table shews the medium and fall of rain for 1826, (the latest year in my possession).

	Medium Temp.	Rain.		Medium Temp.	Rain.
January	78.1	2.99	July	81.8	1. 8
February	77.2	2.44	August	82.1	1.69
March	76.9	1.19	September	82.4	5. 7
April	78.2	1.26	October	81.4	2.96
May	80.7	5.11	November	78.4	4. 5
June	80.8	4.19	December	78.8	2.98

Shewing an annual medium of temperature of 79.68, and a total annual fall of rain of 35.58.

Vegetable Kingdom. Antigua is most bountifully supplied with a variety of edible vegetables and fruit; the yam, sweet potatoe, cassave, cabbage, turnips, carrots, radishes, eddoes, squash pumpkin, cucumber, plantain, ochro (spinnage), &c. are among the former; and among the latter are the orange, mango, guana, shaddock, sweet lemon, pine apple, sapadillo, pomegranate, grenadilla, plum, grape, al-

* The most severe hurricanes were those of 1681, 1707, 1740, 1772, 1780, and 1792.

† A dreadful earthquake occurred in 1689, and committed great destruction in Antigua.

mond, alligator, (and other) pears, melon, citron, banana, cashew, dildoe, redcaps, soursop, bread, and jackfruits, &c.

Sugar is the staple of the island, but other productions are now being attended to. Among the medicinal plants, spices, and trees, are a species of absinthium, aloe perfoliata, amomum zinziber, anisum vulgare, dolichas pruriens, datura stramonium, fæniculum dulce, glycirrhizza glabra, guaicum officinale, several species of menthæ, rosmarinus officinalis, quassia excelsa, and ricinus communis; guinea grass is extensively cultivated.

The coast, bays, and harbours, are plentifully supplied with excellent fish; among the most numerous are the herring, mackarel, baracouta, (of great size); glouper (sometimes fifty pounds); toad (poisonous); mauget, hedgehog, hogfish (poisonous); jew-fish (large and dear); snapper, flatfork, squerrel, chubb, snitt, flounder, mullet, parrot (coloured like the bird), eel (like a serpent); silver, luck, and ink (shedding ink when caught) fishes—abacore (a large size); shark (plentiful); doctor (has a lance in the tail); sprat (two varieties, one poisonous); king,* fry, whitening (poisonous); wattee, hind, comaree, convalby, old wife, queen mullet, cobbler, ten pounder, garr, bolalwe, reay, shew, and crawfish cat (a curious fish with five prongs, which if left on the skin sucks blood)—in fine—

> ——————— 'Each creek and bay,
> With fry innumerable swarm, and shoals
> Of fish, that with their fins and shining scales
> Glide under the green wave; - - - -
> - - - - - part single, or with mate
> Graze the sea-weed, their pasture, and through groves
> Of coral stray; or sporting, with quick glance
> Show to the sun their wav'd coats dropp'd with gold.'

Population. According to the Abbe Raynal, the white inhabitants of Antigua, in 1741, amounted to 3,538, and the

* The king fish taken young is termed *coramour*, and, when kept in a fish pond or crawl for some time, is esteemed a great delicacy, as is also the mud fish (resembling tench) commonly found in the water courses. The mangrove oysters are considered a tantalizing dainty, and the trunk lobsters, cockles, &c. are excellent.

negroes to 27,416. In 1774 the whites were 1,590, and the negoes 37,808. Colquhoun computed the whites in 1815 at 3,200, the free people of colour, 1,200, and the slaves at 36,000. In 1821 the male slaves were, 14,531; females, 16,533—Total, 31,064. The number of white men liable to serve in the militia, from 14 to 59 years old, 877; of white females and children, 840; of white males, under 14 years, 235; number of coloured and black men, liable to militia service, between 14 and 59 years, were 881; of coloured and black females, including children, 2,346; ditto males, under 14 years, 622. Discharged and pensioned soldiers, 9; of African apprentices, 278; of white men, exempt from militia duty over 60 years old, 46. Grand total, 6,162.

Census of Antigua, taken in 1821; similar numbers are given for 1828.

PARISH.	Area in Square Miles.	WHITES.			COLOURED FREE POPULATION.			Grand Total Population.
		Males.	Females	Total.	Males.	Females	Total.	
St. John -	28	644	563	1,207	1,210	1,623	2,833	12,284
St. Philip -	17	116	46	162	62	99	161	4,323
St. George -	10	56	35	91	24	44	68	3,580
St. Mary -	22	81	43	124	65	94	159	4,432
St. Peter -	11¼	100	37	137	53	65	118	4,666
St. Paul - -	18½	142	117	259	292	435	727	4,051
Total -	107	1,139	841	1,980	1,706	2,370	4,066	

The slave population on series of years has been:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Total.
1817	15,053	17,216	32,269	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1821	14,454	16,531	30,985	1,193	1,146	2,239	1,497	1,388	2,885	208
1824	14,225	16,089	30,314	1,262	1,230	2,492	1,318	1,216	2,534	218
1827	14,066	15,773	29,839	1,109	1,194	2,303	1,146	1,131	2,227	228
1831	13,992	15,545	29,537			2,589			2,077	314

PRODUCE, COMMERCE, REVENUE, &c. The variation of seasons, as regards drought or rain, causes great fluctuation

in the production of sugar, &c. in Antigua, and consequently in the commerce of the island.* The exports of the island in 1787, were 284,526 cwt. of sugar; 716,546 gallons of rum; 5,910 gallons of molasses; 160,510 lbs. of cotton; value of dyeing woods, £4,14b; miscellaneous, £48,006;—total value, £592,596.

The principal Exports from 1822 to 1831 were:—

Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.
	hds.	punch.	punch.		hds.	punch.	punch.
1822	6,603	2707	680	1827	5,965	989	2990
1823	10,301	2518	5,304	1828	14,150	2126	7976
1824	16,877	2708	7,350	1829	12,849	3024	6338
1825	13,534	2591	7,358	1830	12,025	2943	4259
1826	17,085	2966	8,747	1831	13,148	2489	7912

The Antigua gross Revenue and Expenditure in pounds sterling from 1821 to 1831 was,—

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.			Years.	Reven.	Expenditure.		
		Civil.	Military	Total.			Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	12,382	11,551	1224	12,795	1827	no return.			
1822	7,634	9,565	1054	10,619	1828	19,429	18,689	1839	20,528
1823	9,099	11,395	1287	12,682	1829	14,391	14,507	1618	16,125
1824	12,702	11,154	2099	13,253	1830	14,357	12,031	1538	13,569
1825	14,591	10,782	2724	13,506	1831	16,007	13,010	2697	15,708
1826	16,024	12,093	2557	14,650					

The crown lands in Antigua and Montserrat are 458 acres, in the parish of St. Paul Falmouth, and the immediate vicinity of His Majesty's dock-yard, English Harbour, employed as, and under, batteries, garrison buildings and ordnance quarters and stores: 171 acres E. N. and W. of English harbour and

* The sugar cane was introduced into Antigua by Colonel Codrington, who settled in the island from Barbadoes in 1674, and employed his knowledge in the cultivation of the cane with such success, that others, animated by his example, and assisted by his advice, engaged in the same pursuits. At first, indeed, the produce was black, harsh, and coarse, and on this account it was rejected in England; and when it was sold in Holland and the Hanse towns, it did not bring so high a price as that of the other colonies: but at length the planters triumphed over these obstacles, and brought sugar to the market equal in value and quality to that of any of the islands.

contiguous, as a naval yard department, and ten acres as a naval hospital, very near the latter. In Montserrat there are two acres, under a few small batteries on the sea-coast.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT. Antigua is legislated for by a Governor, Legislative Council and House of Assembly, the latter consisting of a Speaker and twenty-five members, representing the capital town (St. John's) and twelve divisions, or six parishes, into which the island is divided. The Governor of Antigua is also Governor and Commander-in-Chief over Montserrat, Barbuda,* St. Christopher, Nevis, Anguilla, the Virgin Islands and Dominica; he, however, generally remains stationary at Antigua. The Governor is chancellor of each island by virtue of his office, but commonly holds the court in Antigua. In hearing causes from the other islands he acts alone—but in cases which arise in Antigua he is assisted by a council, and by an act of the Assembly of this island, the president and a certain number of the council may determine chancery causes during the absence of the Governor. The other courts of this island are a Court of King's Bench, a Court of Common Pleas and a Court of Exchequer.

The militia consists of a brigade of artillery, a squadron of light dragoons and a windward and leeward regiment of infantry.

There are nineteen public or free schools in the island, providing for 1,216 scholars; the number of places of worship are twenty-two, capable of containing 3,618 persons—and the expense of maintaining the church establishment is £5,560 per annum. A gentleman totally unconnected with the church

* BARBUDA.—This island the property of the Codrington family, is situated thirty-six miles N. of Antigua, about twenty miles broad, with 1,500 inhabitants; the interior is level, the soil fertile, and the air of great purity. It was first settled by a party of Colonists from St. Kitt's under Sir Thomas Warner, whom the Caribs at first compelled to retreat, but the English finally returned and quickly began cultivation. The chief trade of the colonists consist in raising cattle, swine, poultry, horses, and mules, for sale in the neighbouring islands. There is a good roadstead but the coast is dangerous.

has recently described the state of religious instruction in Antigua, which may be taken as a specimen of most of the other islands.

There is a very general countenance of religious instructors and instruction in most of the islands; and in Antigua particularly.

SCHOOLS AND CHURCHES.—There are Sunday and infant day schools, carried on by the Church of England, the Moravians, and the Methodists. The majority of the clergy are intent on the great duties of their calling: of the missionaries too much can scarcely be said. A too rigid adherence to high church principles has done much injury to the establishment, and exhibited the inadequacy of the episcopal system to the religious requirements of the slave population. The abandonment of the West Indies by the Church Missionary Society has been of essential disservice; still there is much doing by exemplary and devoted men in the establishment, by going about on the estates, and preaching in the negro houses in a truly missionary spirit. The appointment of assistants or helpers (called by the negroes "Godfathers,") to exercise a certain surveillance over their flocks on the plantation has tended very much to give effect to their ministrations. By these and other means the character of the negroes has been much improved, and their outward attention of religion greatly increased; add to this, the refusal of all the ministers and missionaries to bury any whose names are not inserted as members in their books, produces an anxiety, on this if on no other account, to be enrolled among the professors of religion.

FEES TO THE CLERGY.—The vestry assembles, when the acting churchwarden lays before them an estimate of the ways and means for the year. The number of acres and of slaves in the parish show the amount of the tax on each. This amount, with all items, is settled by the majority; the churchwarden delivers the accounts and collects the money. One of the principal disbursements is the minister's salary; about £300 sterling, is provided by an act of the island, and it is customary for the vestry to make a voluntary addition to it, generally from £60 to £100 per ann. This, with a parsonage house, and sometimes a horse, is sufficient to make a clergyman comfortable; and the minister is under the necessity of avoiding conduct which would be offensive to his parishioners, while a portion of his income depends on the good will of his flock. The salary of the clerk is also on a liberal scale, being from £75 to £120 per ann.; he acts as vestry clerk in keeping the accounts and collecting the taxes. The surplice fees are liberal; three guineas is a common fee to a clergyman, and not unfrequently one guinea and a half, to the clerk, as a wedding fee. This, with £3. 13*s.* 6*d.* to the governor for a licence (few white people being married by banns), makes matrimony an expensive business.'

I cannot pass to the next British island (in a geographical position) without noticing an act that reflects much honour on the colonists of Antigua, who have ever been distinguished for their desire to mitigate the horrors of slavery* and to inculcate morality and religion among their dependents. An

* The legislature of Antigua was the first which prescribed the example of an amelioration of the criminal law with regard to negro slaves, by affording the accused party the benefit of trial by jury, and allowing, in the case of capital convictions, *four days* to elapse between the time of sentence and the execution. This Colonial Assembly has, in other instances, displayed a proper sense of its own dignity. The W. I. islands, belonging to Great Britain, have no coin of their own; what is in circu-

act passed the Island Assembly 13th February, 1834, and was ratified by the council two days after, decreeing the emancipation of every slave in the island on the 1st of August, 1834, unqualified from all the provisions of the act of the British Parliament with reference to apprenticeship. The bill provides for locating, in their present domiciles, all the slaves residing upon sugar plantations for the space of one year, and also for settlement in the parishes in which their present residences are situated, for the same period. In case of insubordination or improper conduct, two magistrates to have the power of removing them. Food and clothing, as now provided by existing laws, to be supplied to the old, infirm and young for one year, at the proprietor's expense, and reasonable wages allowed to all the able and competent labourers. The laws of the island relative to the slaves to be abrogated, and the statute law of England to take their place.

In the words of this most righteous Act—'*From and after the 1st of August*, 1834, *slavery shall be and is hereby utterly and for ever abolished and declared unlawful within this colony and its dependencies!*'

I trust this prompt measure of the Antiguans will be met in a corresponding spirit at home, and that the destructive four and a half per cent. duties levied on all their produce exported (and which his present Majesty has so nobly resigned,) will be immediately abolished—the local act for its abrogation being very properly combined by the colonial legislature in the slavery emancipation act.

lation being all foreign. In the beginning of the last century the mother country thought it necessary to settle the value of it, but as the arrangement she made was considered to be contrary to the interests of the colonists, they fixed it at a higher value. But notwithstanding this the lawyers agreed, that if the event should take place, they would never grant their assistance to any one who should refuse to accept the coin at the price fixed by the Assembly.

CHAPTER XII.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S OR ST. KITT'S, NEVIS, ANGUILLA, TORTOLA, &c.

LOCALITY — PHYSICAL ASPECT — MOUNTAINS — RIVERS — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE—POPULATION.

LOCALITY. In 17.18 N. lat., 62.40 W. long., seventy-two miles in circumference, and containing sixty-eight square miles, is situate St. Kitts or St. Christopher,* called by the Caribs *Licmuiga*, or the fertile isle—and in shape somewhat like Italy—as an outstretched leg.

HISTORY. This singular-looking but beautiful spot was discovered by Columbus in 1493, and, as stated by some, received its name from the great navigator himself, by reason of his being so pleased with its fertile appearance; others say its name is derived from a part of Mount Misery bearing a resemblance to the statues common at that period on church porches of St. Christopher carrying our Saviour on his shoulders. The island was then densely peopled by Caribs, who remained for some time after its discovery in possession of their native home, subject to the occasional visits of the Spaniards for water, with whom they are stated to have been on terms of friendship†—a very doubtful fact, unless the Spaniards did not require the land or persons of the Caribs.

In 1623 Warner (afterwards Sir Thomas) settled on the island, with his son and fourteen Londoners, and found three Frenchmen residing in tranquillity with the natives. Warner

* This island is not only honoured by being named after Columbus, but it is said to have given birth to Christophe, first a slave, afterwards a waiter in a hotel, and on board a privateer, and finally Emperor of Haiti. According, however, to one account, this remarkable man was born in the island of Grenada in 1769, and was a slave at St. Domingo so late as 1791.

† So stated by the intelligent and eloquent author of the West India Sketch book.

returned to England for more recruits, and on his return in 1625, landed the same day with M. D'Enambuc, who had arrived from France with a party of colonists. The Caribs took alarm—made war on the European invaders—were discomfited with the loss of 2,000 in killed and wounded, leaving 100 foes dead from their poisoned arrows. The English and French agreed to divide the island between them, and articles of partition were signed 13th of May, 1627. The island was divided into upper and lower portions—the former and most extensive called Capisterre, belonging to the French, and the lower called Basseterre, alone inhabited by the English.

Don Frederick de Toledo, a Spaniard, proceeding to Havannah with fifteen frigates and twenty-four ships of burthen, attacked the colonists in 1629, burned and plundered in every direction, and carried off 600 Englishmen as prisoners; but the flow of emigration was so great to the West Indies at this period, that in the following year the number of English settlers amounted to 6,000. Jealousies, bickerings, and at length hostilities began between the English and French settlers, which were stopped by the latter compelling the former to return within their line of demarcation; but although it was agreed that if France and England went to war, the colonists of St. Christopher should remain neutral, the resolution was broken on the commencement of hostilities in Europe, and a terrible battle, which lasted several days, ended in favour of the French colonists, who assumed the mastery of the whole island, and gallantly defended their acquisition in the following year against a large English force, (sent to recover possession) in the contest for which Lord Belamont and Colonel Lauvreu were slain, all their officers wounded, eight colours lost, 700 British troops killed and drowned, and many taken prisoners. At the peace of Breda the English colonists were restored to their portion of the island—and for twenty years the French and English lived in peace; but in 1689 the former entered the territory of the latter, put to death all who opposed, and by the aid of

fire and sword, forced the English to fly from the colony. In the following year General Codrington and Sir F. Thornhill, with a large force from Barbadoes, drove the French from St. Christopher's, and for several years the English, in turn, remained masters of the whole island; but by the treaty of Ryswick restitution was made to the French of the part they had formerly possessed—this they retained until 1702, when the island was captured by the English; and by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, entirely ceded to the British crown. Most of the French removed to St. Domingo, and the sale of the crown lands produced a large sum for Government, of which £40,000 was voted as a marriage portion for the daughter of George II. St. Kitt's rapidly increased in prosperity, notwithstanding the effects of a terrific hurricane in 1722, which destroyed £500,000 worth of property. In 1782 the Marquis De Bouillé, with 8,000 troops, and supported by the Count De Grasse with twenty-nine sail of the line, captured the island ere Sir S. Hood, with twenty-two sail of the line, could effect any thing for its relief. The Treaty of Peace, signed at Versailles in the following year, restored St. Christopher's to Great Britain, in whose possession it has since remained.*

Physical Aspect. St. Kitts present to the eye an irregular oblong figure, through the centre of which runs a regular series of mountains from N. to S., in the midst of which stands Mount Misery, 3,711 feet in *perpendicular* height, and, although evidently a volcanic production, clothed with the finest wood and pasture, almost to the very summit. From the foot of Mount Misery and the adjoining hills the country has a uniform sloping direction, stretching from a centre to a circumference, bounded by the coast, every inch of which is in a high state of cultivation. There is no plain in the island deserving the name of a swamp, and the great declination of the land towards the sea carries off any super-

* In 1805, a large French force landed at Basseterre without opposition, levied £18,000 as contribution, and sailed away with six merchant ships which they found at anchor in the bay, and burned as soon as they got out to sea.

abundant moisture. On the W. side Brimstone Hill rises gradually from the sea to a height of 750 feet; its E. prospect for two thirds of its altitude has a somewhat conical appearance, and then suddenly projects into two peaks, the N. one being called Fort George; the S., Fort Charlotte or Monkey Hill. At the foot and between these prominences is a plain of quadrangular shape, compassing about an acre of land, having on its E. skirts the barracks (denominated Bedlam), for 220 men.* Monkey Hill is the S. termination of a range of great mountains, which increase in height towards the N., and thicken together in enormous masses in the centre of the island. The apex of this rude pyramid is the awful crag of Mount Misery, which is bare, black, and generally visible whilst the under parts of the mountain are enveloped in clouds. It may, indeed, be termed a tremendous precipice of 3,000 feet, shooting slantingly forward over the mouth of a volcanic chasm, like a vast aerial peninsula, The vale of Basseterre is exquisitely beautiful when viewed from the hills of Mary Cayone, it has been said that there is 'no place on earth which can surpass the richness and cultivated beauty of this lovely scene. Nothing can be better disposed for completing the effect than the plantations are; the tall and moving windmills, the houses of the proprietors, the works and palm-thatched cottages of the negroes embosomed in plantain groves, present the appearance, as indeed they are the substance, of so many country villages in England. On one side is Basseterre with the ships, on the other the ocean to windward, the mountains behind, in front the broken peninsular termination of the island to the S., the salt lakes gleaming between the opening of the rocks, and Nevis towering majestically over all.'

Rivers. There are four rivers in the isle, two at Oldroad, in the parish of St. Thomas, middle island, another at the small village of St. Mary's (Cayone), and the fourth (Pelhans), at Palmetto point, Trinity parish. In rainy weather few

* The fortifications are very strong, and there is a tank within the ramparts capable of containing 90,000 gallons of water.

plantations are without their running streams. In the low-lands springs are plentiful, but some of their waters unfit for drinking, owing to strong saline impregnations. The water in common use (as is the case in most of our West India possessions), is rain water, collected from the houses, preserved in large tanks, and of excellent quality.

Geology. This isle is unquestionably of igneous origin; immense layers of volcanic ashes are found in every parish, and the soil is chiefly of a dark grey loam, extremely porous. At Sandy Point, (St. Ann's parish), there are alternate layers of this loam and ashes, to the depth of 75 feet, on a substratum of gravel. This compost is considered the best in the West Indies for the cultivation of sugar. Clay is found in considerable quantities in the high or mountain land, while the low lands are entirely deficient of it. Among the mountains in the centre of the island there is one which contains mines of sulphur, and there is another not far distant from Fort Charles, in which there is said to be a mine of silver. In the N. E. there are very fine salt ponds, which produce most excellent salt; one of these is more than 100 acres in extent, surrounded with several lesser ponds. The structure of Brimstone Hill consists of granite, limestone, primary rock, schistus, volcanic ashes and madrepores, with a very small proportion of alluvial deposits on a few spots.

Climate. From the smallness of the isle, and its elevation above the sea, St. Kitts is extremely dry and healthy; the mean temperature on the coast is 80, but the mornings and evenings of the hottest days are agreeably cool. The coldest month is February—the warmest August. The winds for the greater part of the year are from the N. E. and S. E.; and although the isle is, from its position, within the range of the hurricanes, yet by these storms the air is tempered and purified, and health is the natural result. The rains that fall are more frequent than heavy, and the bracing qualities of the atmosphere are pourtrayed in the ruddy complexions of the inhabitants and the vigorous strength of body which they possess.

VEGETATION is similar to that of the neighbouring isles already described. Among its numerous fruits, the *citrus aurantium*, or China orange-tree (as also the Seville) grows in great luxuriance; it rises from twelve to twenty feet in height, distinguished by the beautiful deep green of its foliage; stem upright and ramifying in every direction, forming a regular and beautiful head. The fruit is excellent, and may be improved by grafting on the Seville orange stock, but the best is to be obtained by grafting on the pomegranate. The flowers are highly odoriferous, and yield their flavour to rectified spirits by infusion, and to both spirit and water by distillation. The *citrus acrus*, or lime tree, as also the citrus or sweet lime, resembles the orange. From the latter the perfume called burgamot is obtained, which is, in fact, the essential oil that resides in the rind of the fruit, and easily extracted by expression or distillation. There are varieties also of the lemon, *citrus limon;* but the most elegant of this genus is *citrus tuberosa*, or citron tree, the fruit of which imparts to spirits an agreeable flavour. The *shaddock* and forbidden fruit are of the citrus tribe. The shaddock is supposed to have been transplanted from Guinea, in Africa, by a Captain Shaddock, whose name it still bears throughout the West Indies. The fruit has all the appearance of belonging to the orange species, and is divided in the same manner, by a thin skin, into several quarters, but it is as large as a melon, and of a most agreeable and refreshing flavour, between sweet and acid. The outer coat or skin is extremely thick, of a bitterish taste and a pale yellow, or citron colour, very like, in appearance, to the skin of a lemon. There are two species of the shaddock; the pulp or inside of one is white—that of the other a beautiful pale red: the last is considered the most wholesome. This fruit a European may indulge in with safety—and it is almost the only one in this climate, excepting the orange, that will not injure him on his first arrival. The forbidden fruit is a species of the shaddock, only smaller and more delicate, while the outer skin is less coarse. Its juice and the flavour

of the inside are quite delicious in a West Indian climate. The grenadella is another excellent fruit, contained in a soft husk, which is produced by a large passion flower; the husk is filled with a sweet and most agreeable liquid; and the manner of eating it is to cut off one of the ends, and mix up in it Madeira wine and sugar, stirring it all up together; this renders it safe and wholesome for the stomach. It is of the size of a small melon. The *laurus persea*, or avocato, vulgarly called alligator pear, comes to fine perfection here; it is a pulpy fruit, resembling in appearance a large-sized swan's-egg; the pulp, or vegetable marrow as it is called, is enclosed in a light green papyraceous skin, and contains a large irregularly-formed seed, that is immediately surrounded by brownish membraneous coverings.

POPULATION. The number of inhabitants, (as has been shewn under *History*,) was at one period, particularly as regards whites, very numerous; but war and distress have reduced their strength. In 1804 the island contained 8,000 whites, and 20,000 blacks.

The following shews the name, area in square miles, and population, (as late as can be obtained by me, viz. 1826,) of each parish in the island—

Parish.	District.	Sq. Miles.	Population.			Legislative Members.
			White.	Coloured.	Slaves.	
St. George .	Basseterre . .	10	864	1172	3738	4
St. Peter .	Ditto . .	7	108	25	2782	2
St. Mary .	Cayon . .	6½	65	29	2222	3
Christchurch	Nicola-town .	7½	41	54	2063	2
St. John .	Cassisterre .	10½	75	152	1511	2
St. Paul . .	Ditto . .	5	68	35	1588	3
St. Anne .	Sandy Point .	5	167	247	1997	2
St. Thomas .	Middle-island ,	10	179	276	2441	2
Trinity .	Palmetto Point	7½	43	6	1543	3
	Total .	68½	1610	1996	19885	23

Slave Population of St. Kitt's, from 1819 to 1831—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission. Total.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1817	9685	10,483	20,168							
1822	9505	10,312	19,817	1132	1187	2319	1424	1415	2839	217
1825	9324	10,192	19,516	901	765	1666	892	799	1691	265
1828	9198	10,112	19,310	858	848	1706	845	758	1603	243
1831	9141	9,944	19,085	827	801	1628	801	729	1515	243

Commerce, Revenue, &c. Sugar is now the principal product of St. Kitts,* and the amount of the crop varies of course with the seasons. There was of sugar produced in 1830, 8,700 hogsheads; rum, 2,429 puncheons; Molasses, 1,236 puncheons.

The aggregate quantity of produce, cleared out from the Port of Basseterre, from 11th of October, 1829, to 10th of October, 1830, was, Sugar, 8,658 hogsheads; 506 tierces; 1,073 barrels—rum, 2,429 puncheons; 8 barrels; 125¾ hogsheads—Molasses, 1,236 puncheons—Lime juice, 1 puncheon—Shrub, 1 pipe—Arrow Root, 49½ boxes, 1 puncheon—Ginger, 9 barrels—Tamarinds, 10 kegs, 4 barrels—Pickles, 62 jars—Preserves, 30 cases, 6 jars—Cocoa nuts, 1 barrel.

The value of imports in 1831 was £59,518; and the exports £149,559, employing a tonnage inwards of 29,152, and outwards of 27,881.

The produce cleared from Basseterre, the year ending 10th October, 1832, was, sugar, 5,267 hogsheads; 335 tierces; 4,824 barrels—rum, 1,014 puncheons, 22 hogsheads—Molasses, 3,384 puncheons—Arrow root, 84 boxes, 6½ barrels—salt, 2,080 barrels.

* Great attention is being paid to agriculture; an association for the promotion of which was established in June, and for the discussion of all subjects relating thereto. The meetings are held quarterly, when ploughing matches take place, and prizes are distributed for shew of cattle, &c. &c.

Principal Exports from St. Christophers:—

Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.
	hds.	punch.	punch.		hds.	punch.	punch.
1822	6,991	509	160	1827	7,514	1,271	2,186
1823	6,006	421	1,314	1828	No return.		
1824	9,197	1,502	3,296	1829	8,801	2,359	1,763
1825	6,670	1,031	2,993	1830	8,781	2,882	1,250
1826	8,987	1,735	2,369	1831			

The revenue of the island is derived from custom duties, licenses, &c. as in our other possessions.

The gross revenue and expenditure in £ sterling for 1823.

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1823	7,158	7,158	1826	5,413	5,626	1829	6,746	6,897
1824	12,031	9,420	1827	3,846	5,333	1830	6,937	4,933
1825	9,072	6,179	1828	4,957	5,873	1831		

Monies. The coins of the island are principally English, with some Spanish; and there is also a colonial coin sent from England, consisting of the following pieces,

Pieces	$\frac{1}{4}$ dollar	Currency	2*s.* 3*d.*	Sterling	1*s.*	$1\frac{1}{2}$*d.*	
	$\frac{1}{8}$ —	—	1*s.* $1\frac{1}{2}$*d.*	—	0	$6\frac{3}{4}$*d.*	
	$\frac{1}{16}$ —	—	0 $6\frac{1}{2}$*d.*	—	0	$3\frac{3}{8}$*d.*	

The copper coin used, (besides the English penny,) is the *dog*, which passes for three farthings sterling, 72 making the Spanish dollar; the *bitt* is a nominal coin, value $4\frac{1}{2}$ sterling. This description of the coin of St. Kitt's will serve generally for the Virgin Isles, and indeed for the whole of the W. I. isles, as regards the same denomination, unless where otherwise specified.

Government. There is a Lieutenant-Governor, Council, and House of Assembly at St. Kitt's, (with a deputy from Anguilla). Education* and religion are generously encouraged, and the Colonists have ever manifested a great deal of public spirit.

* The number of public, or free schools, is six, with 2,002 scholars. There is also an institution for the support and education of poor and destitute children, which was established by private subscription in 1803, and is

NEVIS.

LOCALITY, &c. This beautiful little island, (one of the leeward Caribbees,)* is reparated from St. Kitt's by a strait, almost two miles broad, and full of shoals, in lat. 17.14 N. long. 63.3 W. It was first colonized by a few Englishmen in 1628, under Sir Thomas Warner.

PHYSICAL ASPECT. Nevis is a single mountain, about four miles in length, three in breadth, eight leagues in circumference, with an area of twenty square miles, springing by an easy ascent, as it were, out of the sea, and evidently of volcanic origin.† At the base of the mountain is a border of level land, extremely fertile and well planted. The appearance of Nevis is perhaps the most captivating of any island in the West Indies. From the S. and W. it seems to be nothing but a single cone rising with the most graceful curve out of the sea, and piercing a fleecy mass of clouds which sleep for ever round its summit. It is green as heart can conceive, perfectly cultivated, and enlivened with many old planters' houses of a superior style, and churches peeping out in the most picturesque situations imaginable. A com-

now provided for out of the public Treasury of the island. The present state of the school is—

	Boys.	Girls.	
Permanent boarders - -	8	4	12
Day Ditto - -	13	9	22
Day scholars - -	19	22	41
Total -			75

Excellent private subscription rooms were formed in 1817, and received a Charter of Incorporation in 1827. The principal object of the Society the gradual formation of a permanent library, as a useful addition to the existing public establishments of this island. Regular and early supplies of the best modern productions, reviews and periodical works, are received in quick succession. The number of subscribers is limited to 60. The number of places of worship are 15, capable of containing 2,980 persons: the annual expense of the establishment is £2,286.

* It is termed by Smith, in his amusing natural history of Nevis, "the *Mother* of the English Caribbee Isles."

† The summit has the appearance of a crater. At a short distance from Clarke's Hill there are several hot springs, containing neutral salts in solution. Their heat varies from 100 to 108 F.

plete forest of evergreen trees grows like a ruff or collar round the neck of the high land where cultivation ceases, On the N. and the E. the cone is not so perfect; it falls off in one direction in a long slope which terminates in a plain towards the Narrows of St. Kitt's, and is broken to windward into one or two irregular hills.*

Charlestown, the seat of Government, is a larger, smarter, and more populous place than the capital of Montserrat. It lies along the shore of a wide curving bay, and the mountain begins to rise immediately behind it in a long and verdant acclivity. The Court House is a handsome building with a square in front; it contains a hall on the ground-floor for the Assembly and the Courts of Law, and another room upstairs for the Council. The public offices are all placed at one end of the hall, and the chairs for the members, the table railing, and the whole furniture remarkably neat.†

The island is divided into five parishes, and it has three tolerable roadsteads.

Population. The white inhabitants are estimated at 500; and the slave population from 1817 to 1831 is thus shewn:—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission. Total.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1817	4685	4917	9602							
1822	4583	4678	9261	547	517	1064	668	537	1222	42
1825	4591	4695	9286	349	316	665	358	335	693	38
1828	4574	4685	9259	323	315	638	328	301	629	61
1831	4526	4616	9142	334	309	643	343	336	679	66

The chief production of the island is sugar, the cultivation of which gives such richness to the scenery,‡ particularly

* Columbus is said to have given the present name to this island from the mountain of Nieves in Spain. Edwards supposes that a white smoke issued in that age from a volcano now extinct, but perhaps the vapours, which rest on the summit, may more probably have suggested the notion of snow.

† Six Months in the West Indies.

‡ Mr. Beckford of Jamaica describes a field of ripe canes, as one of the most beautiful productions that the pen or pencil can possibly describe. It in common arises from three to eight feet in height; a difference in

when contrasted with the mountain forests. The quantity cleared at Nevis, for the year ending 5th December, 1829, was 3,895 hogsheads; 226 tierces; 732 barrels. The Government is quietly and respectably conducted by its Council and Assembly, under certain subordinate restrictions to St. Christopher's.

ANGUILLA.

LOCALITY. Anguilla, or Snake Island, (so called from its tortuous or eel-like form), is situated between 18 N. lat. and 64 W. long., 45 miles to the N. W. of St. Kitts, and separated from St. Martin's by a narrow channel. The island is in length about 30 miles, and in breadth scarcely more than three miles.

HISTORY, In 1650 it was discovered and colonized by the English, in whose possession it has ever since remained, subject, however, to transient incursions from the French and from pirates, and to a brutal attack and pillage from the marauders under Victor Hugues, in 1796; in every instance, however, the islanders have displayed a noble spirit of independence and bravery.*

growth that very strongly marks the difference of soil or the varieties of culture. It is, when ripe, of a bright and golden yellow; and where obvious to the sun is in many parts very beautifully streaked with red; the top is of a darkish green, but the more dry it becomes, from either an excess of ripeness, or a continuance of drought, of a russet yellow, with long and narrow leaves depending, from the centre of which shoots up an arrow-like and silver wand, from two to six feet in height, and from the summit of which grows a plume of white feathers, which are delicately fringed with a lilac dye.'

* In 1745, the Colonists, although then only about 100 strong, repulsed a body of 1,000 French who came to attack them, and obliged them to retire with the loss of 150 men. In 1796, the latter retaliated in a manner worthy of the atrocities of the Revolution. Two ships of war were sent with 400 picked troops, by Victor Hugues, of "red-hot memory," with directions to burn every settlement, and exterminate the whole of the inhabitants (British) in the island. These emissaries set about their work in good earnest, and committed the most barbarous atrocities on the defenceless inha-

PHYSICAL ASPECT, CLIMATE, GOVERNMENT, &c. Anguilla is flat, without mountains or rivers, and with a deep chalky soil. It presents a very singular appearance for a West Indian island. A little wall of cliff of some forty feet in height generally rises from the beach, and, when you have mounted this, the whole country lies before you, gently sloping inwards in a concave form, and sliding away, as it were, to the south, where the land is only just above the level of the sea. The Flat island and St. Martin's terminate the view in this direction. Nine-tenths of the country are entirely uncultivated; in some parts a few coppices, but more commonly a pretty species of myrtle, called by the negroes, maiden-berry, seems to cover the whole soil; the roads are level grassy tracks, over which it is most delightful to ride, and the houses and huts of the inhabitants are scattered about in so picturesque a manner, as to bear a great resemblance to many scenes in Kent and Devonshire. Indeed there are scarcely any of the usual features of West Indian landscape visible; neither of those prominent ones, the lively windmill or the columnar palm, are to be seen, and there is a rusticity, a pastoral character on the face of the land, its roads, and its vegetation, which is the exact antipode of large plantations of sugar. In the centre of the Island is a salt-lake, yielding annually 3,000,000 bushels, a great part of which was wont to be exported to America. The soil yields freely sugar, cotton, maize, and provisions, and many cattle are reared. The climate is extremely healthy, and the people (amounting, in 1819, to, whites, 360; coloured 320; and slaves 2451) strong and active. The Colonists have a chief, or head magistrate, who is confirmed in his office by the Government of Antigua, and a Deputy is sent to the St. Kitt's Assembly.

bitants, but were happily interrupted by the arrival of Captain Barton, in the Lapwing man-of-war, who brought the French ships to action, sinking the one and taking the other.

TORTOLA AND THE VIRGIN ISLES.

LOCALITY. The *Virgin Islands*, (so named by Columbus, on discovery in 1493, in honour of the 11,000 virgins in the Romish ritual) are a cluster of lofty (except Anegada) islets and rocks, to the number of 50, to the N. W. of the Leeward Islands, extending about 24 leagues from E. to W. and about 16 from N. to S. Tortola, the capital, is situate in 18.20 N. lat. and 64.39 W. long.

HISTORY. The Virgin Islands are divided between the British, Danes, and Spaniards; the E. division belong to the former. The names are Tortola, Virgin Gorda, (or Pennistón, and sometimes corrupted into *Spanish Town*), Josvan Dykes, Guana Isle, Beef and Thatch Islands, Anegada, Nichar, Prickly Pear, Camanas, Ginger, Cooper's, Salt Island, St. Peter's Island, and several others of little or no value.*

The first possessors of the British Virgin Islands were a party of Dutch buccaneers, who fixed themselves at Tortola about the year 1648, and built a fort for their protection. In 1666 they were expelled by a stronger party of the same profession, who took possession in the name of England; and the English monarch, (Charles II.) availing himself of this circumstance, shortly thereafter annexed it to the Leeward Island Government, in a commission granted to Sir William Stapleton.

PHYSICAL ASPECT OF TORTOLA. A succession of precipitous and rugged mountains run E. and W. from one extremity of the island to the other. The shores are indented with bays, harbours, and creeks, and, together with the adjacent quays, afford shelter and anchorage for a great extent of shipping. The interior contains large tracts of waste land and pasturage, with zigzag paths skirting the mountain sides, and rendering the interior difficult of access, and of course of cultivation: the soil, however, is thin and impove-

* The Western division belonging to the Danes are St. Thomas, John's, James, Montalvan, Savannahor, Green Island, Brass Isles, Hauseatei, &c.

rished, offering little encouragement for sugar cane plantations.

CAPITAL. The chief town, Tortola, is situate on the S. side of the island, close to the water's edge, in the western bight of a magnificent harbour or basin, and forming one long street, curving at the base of a projecting point of land. In front of the town and harbour is a chain of small islands, extending far to the southward, and forming the passage called *Sir Francis Drake's Channel.* The harbour of Tortola, extending thus in length 15 miles and in breadth 3½, perfectly land-locked, has been seen in war time affording shelter to 400 vessels waiting for convoy.

THE POPULATION is, of whites and free coloured males, 787, females, 986. The slave inhabitants were, from 1818 to 1828,

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission. Total.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1818	3231	3668	6899							
1822	2975	3485	6460	266	239	505	371	347	718	86
1825	2505	2931	5436	237	231	468	168	137	305	83
1828	2510	2889	5399	238	221	459	157	125	282	90

There are four free schools in Tortola, with 151 males and 260 female scholars, and five places of worship.

Up to 1773 the government of these islands was entrusted to a Deputy-Governor, with a Council, who exercised in a summary manner both the legislative and executive authority; but, in the latter year, a local legislature, similar to that of the other islands, was conferred on them, with courts of justice, in consideration of the inhabitants *voluntarily (!)* offering to pay an annual impost of 4½ per cent. to the crown upon all the natural productions of the islands. They are now under the Government of St. Kitts, but possessing in Tortola a Council and Assembly of their own. The principal articles of export in 1828 was, sugar, 959 hogsheads; rum, 4 puncheons; molasses, 20 ditto; cotton, 980 bales; employing a shipping inwards of 3,632 tons, and outwards of 3,184 tons.

In war time these islands afford a valuable retreat for shipping. On this account I give the following detail of the geographical position of the chief British Virgin settlements:

'ANEGADA, or DROWNED ISLAND, is the N. easternmost island, of a semi-circular form, extending nearly N. W. by W. and S. E. by E.; its length being about twelve miles, and breadth two and a quarter miles; surrounded by a reef, which also stretches off from the S. E. end full four leagues, and from its winding form is called the Horse-shoe; this reef has from two to six feet over it, and is extremely dangerous; no marks can be given to enable the mariner to steer clear of these dangers; the island of Anegada being so low, that the sea frequently will break almost all over it. Anegada now produces some cotton, and has about 200 inhabitants; the goats, sheep and cattle are good, and near the southern point fresh water may be obtained. The course from Saba to the eastern part of Virgin Gorda is N.W. ¼ W., and the distance 26 leagues.

VIRGIN GORDA.—The Island of Virgin Gorda, or Spanish Town Island, is nearly eight miles long, and of irregular shape, being exceedingly narrow at both ends, but somewhat broader and higher near the middle; it lies almost in a N. E. and S. W. direction, bending a little circularly toward the northward, and contains 51,900 square acres of land; and is divided into eight districts, possessing 345 plantations. Its exports are sugar, rum, tobacco, indigo, peas, and some cotton, but the latter article seems not to be congenial to the soil, which is dry and sandy; the land is mostly level, and in rainy weather is watered by several small rivulets, but these in summer frequently dry up and disappear; the inhabitants are supported chiefly by potatoes and fish. The island has three harbours, that on the north-east side is called North Sound. Mr. Lockwood says, this is a secure port of great capacity, and its entrance is not difficult to discover. It is protected by several islands, between which the passages are narrow, and encumbered with rocks, so that no stranger should attempt them without the assistance of a pilot; but when within the Sound, you lie in great security. The west Bay, on the N.W. side of this island, is more open, and much frequented, but some rocks under water are situated about the middle of the bay, and must be avoided; the anchorage is to the southward of these rocks; here you will have eight and ten fathoms, sand and ouze, and lie nearly midway between some islands called the Dogs and Virgin Gorda; the ground holding well. A better place for anchoring is to the southward, in Thomas's Bay; here you will ride safe in six, seven, or eight fathoms, directly before the town; but there is a reef in the middle of the bay, which runs north and south, and many ragged rocks at the bottom, which greatly chafe the cables. The best mark to know Virgin Gorda is the hill, situated near the middle of the island, of moderate height, and

standing alone; this in clear weather will be seen seven leagues off. The ground is so clear under the lee of Virgin Gorda, that 300 sail may anchor in the space between the Dogs and the valley. Three miles to the westward of St. Thomas's Bay is Scrub Island, and a little to the S. Westward of that is Beef Island; these form passages into Sir Francis Drake's Bay: you may sail in on either side of the Dogs, or between the Dogs and Scrub and Beef Islands; this latter is the widest passage, but there is a shoal of twelve feet water lying mid-channel, about one mile to the north-eastward of the eastern end of Scrub Island; this you must be careful to avoid, going on either side of it, which you will easily do, by borrowing near to the islands each way.

To the S. Westward of Virgin Gorda are a remarkable cluster of ragged Rocks, the apparent effect of some volcanic convulsion of nature; these are named Old Jerusalem or the Fallen City, the Round Rock, and Ginger Island. Between the two latter is the *common passage* into the Great Bay, called also Sir Francis Drake's Channel, and King's Channel; but to the northward of the Round Rock, is a *danger* under water, with only 11 feet over it. Between Round Rock and Ginger Island the channel is clear, and has 18 fathoms water in it, both sides being steep too; further west are Cooper's and Salt Island; the passage between Ginger and Cooper's Island is good, and sometimes used; in it are 11, 18, and 19 fathoms. On your larboard side is the Carvel Rock above water; but the channel between Cooper's and Salt Island channel has a *dangerous rock* in it, and therefore seldom frequented.

Peter's Island is a narrow, crooked island, of irregular form; one-third of a mile off its N. East point is a remarkable rocky islet, called the Dead Chest; the channel between Peter's Island and the Dead Chest is very clear and good, and consequently much adopted; but that between the Dead Chest and Salt Island is not so safe, on account of a sunken rock, called the South Rost, over which are only 12 feet water; this bears from the Dead Chest N. E. by N. distant about half a mile, and may be passed on either side.

Normand's Island lies about a mile to the south-westward of the S. W. end of Peter's Island; its length W. S. W. is two miles, and its breadth no where one mile; its shores are irregular and much indented with coves; on its western side is Man of War Bay, where vessels may ride in from thirteen to three fathoms, the bottom clear from all danger. To the northward of Norman's Island is the Pelican, or Witch, and near that are four small perpendicular rocks, called the Indians. In passing between Peter and Norman's Islands, you should run in nearer to the latter, for at the S. W. point of the former is a rocky kay, called the Carrot, and a sandy shoal, stretching out a considerable way into the channel; S. W. by S. from the S. W. end of Normand's Island, distant

nearly half a mile, lies a sunken rock, called Santa Monica, with only 11 feet water over it, and midway between Normand's and St. John's Islands is Flanagan Island, off the southern part of which is a rocky reef. There are navigable channels on each side of Flanagan Island, only taking care to give a good berth to the Santa Monica Rock, in the eastern channel, and to St. John's Island in the western channel, for some sunken dangers lie on that side. These are the islands from the S. Western part of Virgin Gorda to St. John's, which enclose Sir Francis Drake's Channel on the south-eastern side, while St. John's, Tortola, Beef, and Scrub Islands, form its W. and N. W. boundary.

According to a voluminous statistical table in the possession of James Colquhoun, Esq. the agent for St. Vincent's and several other islands, to whose urbanity and philanthropy I am indebted for many of the facts contained in this volume; the area of the several Virgin isles in acres were—Anegada 31,200; Tortola 13,300; Spanish Town 9,500; Jos Van Dykes 3,200; Peter's Island 1890; Beef Island 1560; Guana Island 1,120; and forty other isles, with areas varying 900 down to five acres each, comprising in the whole 58,649 acres; of which there were in 1823 under sugar canes 3,000 acres; cotton grounds 1,000; provisions 2,000; pasture land 33,500; forest or brushwood land 11,440; and of barren land but 7,257 acres. The quantity of stock on the island is given at horses 240; mules and asses 529; horned cattle 2,597; sheep 11,442; goats 3,225; pigs 1,825; poultry 44,050; and of fish caught within the year 15,837,371 lbs.; and yielding altogether an annual production of property to the extent of £100,000. sterling; and with a total aggregate of moveable and immovable property of nearly one million sterling.

If encouragement were given to the growth of agricultural produce by the remission of duties in England, there are many spots on the Virgin Isles where industrious Britons would find a livelihood, instead of perishing of want at home.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE BAHAMAS.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — ASPECT — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE — POPULATION — PRODUCTIONS — FINANCES — GOVERNMENT, WASTE LANDS, &c.

LOCALITY. This singular group of isles, reefs, and quays, termed the Lucayos,* or Bahamas, extend in a crescent-like form; from the Matanilla Reef in 27.50 N. lat. and 79.5 W. long.; to Turks Island in 21.23 N. lat. and 71.5 W. long., a distance of about 600 miles, not including various sand banks and coral reefs, stretching to a great extent eastward.

HISTORY. One of the Bahama isles, St. Salvador,† is celebrated as being the first land discovered by the immortal navigator on the 12th of October, 1492, when he made this advanced post of a new world. The Bahamas were then densely peopled by the mild and happy Indian race, who were soon shipped off to work in the mines of Peru and Mexico, when the Spaniards began their search for gold. In 1629 New Providence was colonized by English, (the natives were then totally extinct) who remained there till 1641, when the Spaniards drove them from the islands, murdered the Governor, and committed many acts of savage cruelty. In 1666 the English again colonized in the Bahamas, and New Providence remained in their hands till 1703, when the French and Spaniards again expelled them, and destroyed their plantations. The Bahamas now became a rendezvous for pirates, whose proceedings, so hurtful to commerce, were only finally suppressed by Capt. Woodes Rogers, of the British navy, who was established as Governor, and soon reduced the outlaws to obedience. After this some of the other islands became inhabited, and remained quietly in our pos-

* This word probably owes its origin to the Spanish words *los cayos*, (Anglice, the keys.)

† Guanahani, now called Cat Island.

session until the American war, when, in 1776, Commodore Hopkins, with a squadron from Philadelphia, attacked and plundered the settlement, and carried off the Governor. In 1781 the Spaniards took possession of the isles, but they were restored to the British crown by treaty in 1783, having, however, been previously captured for England by the enterprising Col. Devaux, of South Carolina. The Bahamas have ever since remained in our possession, and the historian is not called on to narrate any further event of importance to Great Britain as connected with them.

Physical Aspect. Amidst a group of several hundred islets none are elevated; they are evidently the work of that extraordinary being—the coral insect,* who, with all his apparent insignificance, has created many beautiful and habitable spots for the dwelling and culture of man. Some of the Bahamas are inhabited, others present to the eye a few plantations, the remainder are tenantless, though doubtless suited for culture, if there were an abundant population desirous of obtaining food. Generally speaking, the Bahamas are low and flat, indeed little elevated, even in their highest points, above the level of the sea, nevertheless, their verdant appearances render them extremely prepossessing. It will be sufficient to particularize a few of the principal of our possessions in the group.

New Providence, from its harbour and relative situation with respect to the Florida Channel, is considered the most important of the Bahamas, and on it is situate Nassau, the seat of Government for the isles, and the head-quarters of the naval and military establishments. The island is about 21 miles in length from E. to W. and 7 in breadth from N. to S. mostly flat, and covered with brushwood and extensive lagoons; a range of hilly rocks runs along part of the island, at a very short distance from the sea, in a direction E. and W. On this ridge many of the buildings of Nassau are constructed, including the Government House, and at its extremity to the

* The ocean close to the isles is of an unfathomable depth; reefs of rocks, or rather walls of coral, bound the islands after the manner observable in the South sea isles.

W. are the barracks and Fort Charlotte. Another ridge, called the Blue Hills, runs in a direction nearly parallel with the former, and at about 2½ miles distance. HOG ISLAND is little more than a reef of rocks, which forms part of the N. harbour of New Providence. ROSE ISLAND, to the N. and E. of New Providence, is about 9 miles long and ½ broad. It affords protection to 'Cochrane's Anchorage.' HARBOUR ISLAND is 5 miles long and 2 broad, lat. 25.29 N. long. 76.34 W. very healthy, and a favourite resort for convalescents. TURKS' ISLAND, lat. 21.32 N. long. 71.05 W. principal mart for salt making, peculiarly healthy, and a point of military importance in regard to St. Domingo. NORTH AND SOUTH BIMINIS. These isles are about seven miles long, in Lat. 25.40 N. Long. 79.18 W. healthy, well wooded and watered, capacious anchorage, and in the event of a war highly important for the protection of the trade of the gulf of Florida, to the E. of which they are situate. The anchorage on the gulf side can admit any class of shipping.

An idea of the number and extent of the isles* will be conveyed by the following statement of the lands in the Bahamas, from an official return dated in 1827.

* Those not mentioned above are in chief—

ANDROS long (22 leagues) and irregular, to the W. of New Providence, 8 leagues. Between them a tongue of ocean water runs in S. E. as far as Lat. 23° 21′, called the Gulf of Providence: access difficult from reefs. Off its S. E. end are the Espirito Santo Isles. The BERRY ISLANDS, an irregular group. Several small harbours formed by them, where refreshments may be had. The S. E. of these islands are denominated the Frozen Kays, and the N. the Stirrup Kays. Off the northernmost of the latter there is anchorage on the bank, in Lat. 25° 49′. The GREAT and LITTLE ISAACS.—W. ¾ N., 48 miles from Little Stirrup Kay, is the easternmost of three small kays, called the Little Isaacs, and five miles further, is the westernmost kay of the same name: these are from 50 to 60 or 70 feet in length; the middle kay is not so large. These kays are situated on the western end of the Gingerbread Ground, which extends five leagues E. by S. from the westernmost rock, or Little Isaac, is about five miles wide near the east end, and has some dangerous sharp rocks upon it, with only seven to nine feet water. The NARANJOS, or two ORANGE KAYS, lie four miles within the edge of the bank, in lat. 24° 55′, and long. 79° 7′. ELEUTHERA extends E. 9 leagues, S. E. 4 ditto, and S. ¼ E. 12 leagues. GUANAHANI, or CAT ISLAND N. W. 8½ leagues, E. ¼ S. from Powel's Point, in Eleuthera; it thence extends south eastward, 15 leagues, having a breadth of three to seven miles. Eleven miles S. E. from Cat Island is Conception Island, of about seven miles in length N. E. and S. W., and three miles in breadth. YUMA, or LONG ISLAND, 17 leagues in length from S. E. to N. W. S. by W., 17½ leagues from the S. point of Long Island, is Cayo Verde or Green Kay. From Cayo Verde the edge of the bank forms a great and deep bay to the N. W., in the S. W. part of which is Cayo de Sal, at the distance of 10 leagues from the former. EGG ISLAND is small, in Lat 25. 31.

There are many smaller kays and rocks too numerous to mention.

	Acres Granted.	Acres Vacant.	Total. Area.
New Providence, Hog Island, Rose Isle and Keys	33,281	31,000	64,281
Andros Islands, Sheep, Grass and Green Keys	25,380	475,000	500,380
Berry Islands, Biminis and Chain of Keys	2,116	18,000	20,116
Grand Bahama and its Keys	6,019	282,000	288,019
Great and Little Abaco, and Chain of Keys	24,715	296,000	320,715
Harbour Island		1,000	1,000
Eleuthera, Royal and Egg Islands, and Keys	43,922	227,000	270,922
St. Salvador and Leeward Little Isle	50,868	190,000	240,922
Watling's and Windward Little Isles	18,015	10,000	28,015
Great and Little Exuma	32,876	58,000	90,876
Rum Key	15,434	5,000	20,434
Ragged Island and Keys		3,000	3,000
Long Island	67,260	86,000	153,260
Crooked and Acklin's Islands and Long Keys	31,509	130,000	161,509
Atwood Keys		18,000	18,000
Mayaguana and French Keys		60,000	60,000
Great and Little Heneague	6,210	351,000	357,210
The Caicos Islands	37,881	171,000	208,881
Turk's Island		9,000	9,000
Keysal and Anguilla, &c.		10,000	10,000
Total acres	408,486	2,434,000	2,842,000

Remaining in possession of the Crown, acres 2,434,000 in the Bahama Isles.

GEOLOGY. The Bahamas are formed of calcareous rocks, which are composed of corals, shells, Madrepores, and various marine deposits, hardened into solid masses in the revolutions of ages. The deposits appear to have been thrown up in regular strata at various periods, and their upper surface deeply honey-combed, bears evident marks of having been long covered by the waters of the ocean. No primitive formation has been formed, and the bases of the islands are evidently coral reefs, originating with the Molluscæ, which, unpossessed of locomotive powers, have organic functions destined for the secretion of the lime required for their calcareous coverings. Marl is formed on many of the out islands, and here and there strata of argillaceous earth

may be met with. Meteoric stones have been discovered rudely sculptured with human features, by the Aborigines, but whether found on the island or brought thither it is impossible to say, and at Turks' Island a great number of calcareous balls have been found, all bearing an indentation as though they had been suspended to a pedicle:—their origin or nature is equally unknown. In confirmation of the idea that these islands have been raised from the bottom of the ocean on pillars of coral after the manner of the E. and southern hemisphere, it may be stated many of their salt water lakes and ponds communicate with the ocean, as shewn by their sea fish, many of them are so deep as not to allow soundings, and the water in them rises and falls with the tides on the coast.

Climate. Situated at the mouth of the gulf of Florida, placed by geographical position without the tropics, removed from the excessive heat of a vertical sun, and the intense cold of a northern winter, the Bahamas enjoy a climate mild, equable and delightful; to the islands within the torrid zone they are nearly akin, in the little variety of season, the natural productions of the earth and the manners and customs of the people, but the decided difference in the mean annual temperature, and the more robust and healthy appearance of all classes of the community, gives to the Bahamas all the appearances of a country situate in a more temperate latitude. The summer and winter, (hot and cold), the wet and dry seasons are well marked; the cold season lasts from November to May, during which period the sky is remarkably clear and serene, the mercury at noon F. occasionally below 60 seldom beyond 70 or 75, while a refreshing N. breeze tempers the mid-day heat, and the mornings and evenings are cool and invigorating. From May to Nov. the heat increases and decreases as the sun advances and retires from its great northern declination. The thermometer ranges from 75 to 85 F. rarely higher; a fine breeze frequently blows from the E. with cooling showers of rain, before the summer solstice and towards the autumnal equinox. The mornings have then a peculiar freshness, and the evenings a

softness and beauty unknown to colder countries. From the flatness of the isles the full benefit of the sea breezes is felt throughout every part of each island. The health of the climate will be indicated by the fact that out of a population of 1,148 at Harbour island, no funeral took place from the 5th of June to the 12th of November, while with the same population 20 or 30 would have expired in any part of Europe; and at Nassau the proportion of deaths to the population was, in 1826, only 1 in 45, which is less than the mortality of England.

The following is a Meteorological Table for Nassau, New Providence:—

	THERMOM.			WIND.	REMARKS.
	Max.	Med.	Min.		
January - -	80	69	58	S. N.E. N.E. N.	Strong breezes and cloudy.
February -	78	73	68	N.E. S.E. N.E.	Moderate and variable.
March - -	84	76	68	N.E. S.E. N.E. N.	Clear and squally.
April - - -	84	78	73	E. N.E. S.E. N.W.	Ditto, little rain.
May - - -	87	79	74	Variable.	Moderate showers.
June - - -	89	83	77	Ditto.	Clear and dry.
July - - -	92	87	83	S.E. E. S. N.E.	Mild and clear.
August - -	94	88	84	N.E. E. N.W. S.	Squalls, with rain.
September -	93	87	83	N E. N. N.W. S.	Clear, showery, and hazy.
October - -	86	80	74	E. N E. N.W.	Mild, rain, and squally.
November -	84	74	68	S. S.W. W. N.W.	Moderate and squally.
December -	82	70	68	S.S.W. N.W.	Variable, mild, clear.

POPULATION. Of the early population we know nothing certain; the slaves are thus detailed before Parliament:—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.			Decrease by Death.			Manumission. Total.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1822	5529	5279	10,808							
1825	4670	4594	9,284	417	392	809	266	162	428	84
1828	4608	4660	9,268	437	426	863	244	171	415	118
1831	4777	4928	9,705			1100			433	190

According to a census in 1826, the population was:—

Whites.		Coloured, Free.		Slaves.		Total.		King's Troops, including Families.
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
2297	2291	897	1362	4592	4594	7786	8247	380

The aggregate of the population from 1822 to 1831 was—

Years.	White and Free Col.		Slaves.		Total.		Years.	White and Free Col.		Slaves.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1822	2,702	3,220	5,251	5,019	7,953	8,239	1827	3,164	3,626	4,690	4,724	7,854	8,350
1823	2,712	3,246	5,151	5,019	7,963	8,265	1828	3,214	3,731	4,691	4,606	7,903	8,337
1824	3,149	3,610	5,251	5,019	8,400	8,629	1829	3,368	3,863	4,692	4,606	8,060	8,469
1825	3,149	3,610	4,592	4,594	7,761	8,204	1830	3,368	3,863	4,692	4,606	8,060	8,469
1826	3,194	3,653	4,592	4,594	7,786	8,247	1831	3,668	3,863	4,727	4,830	8,095	8,693

PRODUCE AND COMMERCE. European and tropical vegetables and fruits thrive and are abundant; beef, mutton and poultry, good and plentiful; the shores abound with fish, and there is turtle enough among the Bahamas to supply all Europe; almost every island has pretty good water; ambergris is occasionally found; cotton was formerly an abundant article of exportation, and there is scarcely a spot in any of the islands that is not covered with a luxuriant vegetation.

Ship timber, of a most excellent quality, is abundant on many of the Bahama islands; logwood, brazilletto, fustic, green ebony, and satin wood, are produced in considerable quantities, for building or planking vessels; the cedar, horseflesh, madeira, mastic, and other durable woods, in great plenty, and there is an inexhaustible supply of very superior firewood; sponges of good quality abound on the island shores, and the water from the wells at New Providence has the desirable quality of keeping good at sea for any length of time.

The agricultaral stock in the Bahamas in 1831 consisted of 1,165 horses, asses, and mules; 3,250 horned cattle, 5,975 sheep and goats; and 3755 swine. The quantity of produce raised was 30,350 bushels of Indian corn (at 4*s*. 4*d*. market price per bushel); 74,250 lbs of potatoes and yams (at 6*s*. per

cwt.); 3825 bushels of peas and beans (at 5*s.* 10*d.* per bushel); 38,465 dozen of pine apples (at 2*s.* per dozen); 22 tons of cotton (at 5*d.* per pound); 30,500 melons and pumpkins (at 3*s.* per doz.); 31,300 lbs. of ocre (at 2*d.* per lb.); and 19 tons of cassada, or cassava, (vide British Guyana for a description), at 10*s.* per cwt.

The principal articles of export in 1831 were, cotton 69 bales; bark 70,320 lbs.; braziletto 255 tons; fustic, 308 tons. The value of the imports in 1831 was £91,561.; and of the exports £74,658.; employing a shipping inwards of 48,765 tons, and outwards of 54,264 tons. When we observe that there are nearly two millions and a half of acres of land in these isles unoccupied, and admit that half are fit for the support of human life, I cannot see any reason, any justice, or state policy, in leaving thousands to starve at home when we should be offering every encouragement to the unemployed to accept of and till the waste colonial lands.

FINANCE, &c. The revenue of the settlement is raised after the manner adopted in the other West India settlements.

The gross Revenue and Expenditure in £ sterling, from 1821 to 1831, is stated in official documents to have been:—

Years.	REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.		
	Colonial.	Parliamentary Grant.	Total.	Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	8,419	3,147	11,566	14,642	206	14,848
1822	16,297	3,343	19,640	17,316	223	17,539
1823	17,836	3,413	21,249	No return.		14,834
1824	10,699	3,413	14,112	—		16,686
1825	11,355	4,782	19,137	—		17,367
1826	13,175	3,997	17,172	—		18,329
1827	11,853	4,880	16,513	25,810	790	26,600
1828	15,210	3,252	18,462	17,395	31,279	48,674
1829	17,092	3,252	20,344	24,343	28,839	53,182
1830	14,691	3,252	17,943	19,266	28,831	48,117
1831	19,147	3,252	22,399	20,413	25,920	46,333

The number of free or public schools is seven, with 227 male, and 231 female scholars. There are 41 places of worship, maintained at the expense of about £2,000 per annum.

GOVERNMENT. As in the other West India possessions the Government of the Bahamas is modelled after that of England, viz. a House of Assembly, or Commons, consisting of between twenty and thirty members, returned from the several islands, a Council of twelve members, approved by the crown, and a Governor, who is Commander-in-chief of the militia, and has the power of summoning and dissolving the legislative body, and of putting a negative on its proceedings. The Electors are free white persons, of twenty-one years of age, who have resided twelve months within the Government, for six months of which they must have been householders, or freeholders, or in default of that have paid duties to the amount of £50. To become a representative the person must have 200 acres of cultivated land, or property to the value of £2,000 currency.

There are several Courts at Law, such as the *Supreme Court*, which holds its sessions in terms of three weeks, with the powers of the common law at Westminster, and its practice modelled on that of the King's Bench, the Courts of Chancery, Error, Vice-Admiralty, &c.

Nassau in New Providence, as before observed, is the seat of Government and the centre of commerce; it possesses a fine harbour, nearly land locked, and on the S. side of which the capital extends over a rather steep acclivity to the summit of a ridge, the W. of which is crowned by a fortress of considerable strength, where the garrison is kept. The island is divided into parishes, each of which has its church, clergy, and school, liberally provided for. The streets are regularly laid out, the public buildings good; and there is an air of liveliness and cleanliness which immediately attracts the eye of a stranger.

In conclusion—I should be rejoiced to see Government granting the unoccupied lands in the Bahamas in fee simple, and in perpetuity to any responsible individual who might either settle thereon himself, or locate others who possess industry without the means to render it available, either for their own advantage or for the welfare of the state.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE BERMUDAS, OR SOMER ISLES.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY—CLIMATE—POPULATION—PRODUCTIONS, GOVERNMENT, &c.

LOCALITY. The Bermudas, or Somer Isles, exceeding 300 in number, lie in the Atlantic Ocean, in lat. 32.20 N., long. 64.50 W. about 600 miles E. of South Carolina, the nearest point of North America, and containing about 14,000 acres of land.

HISTORY. They were discovered in 1522 by J. Bermudez, a Spaniard, who found them uninhabited.* Sir George Somers was wrecked upon them in 1609, and made his way to Virginia in a vessel constructed of cedar, which did not contain an ounce of iron, excepting one bolt in the keel. They were settled shortly after from Virginia and England, but disputes for some time prevailed respecting the rights of the Virginia Company. They have ever since remained in the uninterrupted possession of England, and at one time attracted great attention from their salubrity and picturesque scenery.

PHYSICAL ASPECT. When viewed from a ship at sea, the Bermudas appear to have but a trifling elevation compared with the bold and lofty aspect of many of our West India Islands; indeed the surface is very irregular, seldom presenting any lofty elevations, the highest land not exceeding 200 feet. The principal islands (St. George's, Ireland, St. David, Somerset, Paget, Longbird and Smith's) together with the minor islands, lie in such a manner as to form several bays, some of which are capacious and deep enough to afford harbour for the whole British navy, but difficult of ingress and egress; St. Georges's, the main island, Somerset and Ireland,

* May, an Englishman, is said to have been wrecked there at an earlier period, and with his companions built a vessel, in which he returned to England.

form a chain, with very little interruption, for about thirty miles long, seldom exceeding in breadth two miles, (resembling a shepherd's crook) running nearly E. and W., St. George's being the E. and Somerset and Ireland the W.; it appears, in fact, as if an extensive island had disappeared in some convulsion of nature, leaving above water only a long narrow ridge, without either mountains or vallies, rivers, forests or plains. Groves of cedars are here and there detached on little plateaus of rising ground; and the numerous basins (some sixteen miles in circumference) formed by the islands give very much the appearance of lake scenery. The N. shore is defended by the heavy sea from any approach to the island on that side (except through the channel) and by innumerable sunken rocks, which form a shoal, with little interruption, for the whole length of the islands, and stretching in a N. E. direction for nearly ten miles, leave but a narrow and intricate passage for shipping, which is close to the shore, and defended by several strong batteries. The S. coast is bold, and guarded by sunken rocks in a manner similar to the north shore.

The island of St. George, the military station of the colony, and formerly the seat of Government, is about 3 miles long, and at no part exceeding half a mile broad; it lies at the entrance of the only passage for ships of burthen. The town of St. George is situate on the S. side of the E. extremity of the island, in a sort of amphitheatre, low built, and with narrow streets.

Geology. A stone called "Bermuda rock," and peculiar to the place, forms, with few exceptions, the basis of the islands and minor rocks; it is extremely porous—so much so as to be unfit for filtering stones; at first sight it closely resembles loose sandstone, but on minute inspection will be found to consist of a congeries of comminuted shells cemented together, and occasionally including larger and tolerably perfect portions of shells; the layers of this stone are stratified, and the dip varies very much in the direction it

* Vide *introduction*, for Plato's account of 'Atalantis.'

takes and the angle it forms with the horizon; the stone is easily wrought with axes and saws, is naturally friable, but becomes harder when exposed to the atmosphere, and changing from a whitish to a bluish grey colour; it is used in the principal buildings—for when covered with cement or lime it is impervious to the rain or damp, and was therefore at one time an article of extensive export to the United States of America.

The soil is of a reddish brown colour, and in some places, as at Ireland isle, bearing strong marks of oxyde of iron. Round the coast there are some districts with a strong tenacious blue clay—in others a micaceous, kneadable brick earth; and again, an argillaceous soil, with luxuriant pasturage. There is no other point in the geology worth noticing.

CLIMATE. The climate is favourable to European health, and may be said to be a perpetual summer. The meteorological register for the year is—

	THERMOM.			WINDS.	REMARKS.
	Max.	Med.	Min.		
January -	64	66	63	N.W.	Cold, frequent rain.
February -	60	63	59	N.E	Ditto.
March - -	62	63	61	N.W. by W.	More temperate, gentle breezes.
April - -	75	76	75	S.E.	Warm, and showers.
May - -	78	80	77	S.S.E.	Sultry, ditto, thunder.
June - -	83	86	84	S.W.	Hot, light breezes.
July - -	77	79	77	E.	Ditto, thunder storms.
August - -	77	79	79	S.E.	Sultry, heavy showers.
September -	77	79	78	S.W. by W.	Hot, frequent ditto.
October - -	78	79	75	N.E.	Stormy, heavy rains.
November -	69	71	69	N.W.	Cold, with heavy rain.
December -	61	65	61	N.E.	Ditto, thunder and lightning.

Water is supplied to the inhabitants all the year round from tanks, in which it is collected during rain.

VEGETATION, &c. The cedar grows to a great height in many places, and would seem in several parts to spring from the bare rock; it is used for ship-building; the palmetto is much cultivated for the making of straw hats, but arrow-root

seems to be the staple of the island, and machinery has recently been imported for its preparation; coffee, cotton, indigo, tobacco, &c. are grown as good as in the West India islands, as do also all the fine fruits and vegetables of the tropics. There are no wild animals, the feathered tribe is confined to a few varieties, but the sea around teems with fish, and the whale is pursued with great animation, and killed for the sake of his oil and bone.

POPULATION. The latest returns before me of the number of inhabitants are the census of 1822, 1828, and 1831.

Years.	White and Free Coloured.		Slaves.		Total Males.	Total Females.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		
1822	2,209	3,161	2,620	2,622	4,899	5,783
1828	1,872	2,771	1,825	2,002	3,697	4,773
1831	2,135	5,193	1,825	2,090	3,960	6,282

At one of the late censuses there were in each parish,—

PARISH.	Area in Acres.	Whites.		Free Blacks.		Slaves.		Total.		Acres Uncultivated.
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
St. George ..	1,580	204	267	90	110	220	210	514	587	1,525
Hamilton	1,651	139	194	31	45	164	188	324	427	1,620
Smiths	1,281	64	130	7	7	106	120	177	257	1,265
Devonshire ..	1,281	100	198	17	42	113	124	230	364	1,246
Pembroke....	1,281	348	491	68	103	310	336	726	930	1,226
Pagets	1,281	164	269	24	33	221	245	409	541	1,216
Warwick	1,281	209	311	25	31	158	198	392	540	1,256
Southampton	1,281	141	198	18	25	183	256	342	470	1,200
Sandys	1,507	195	289	28	34	350	325	573	648	1,408
Total..	12,424	1,564	2,341	308	430	1,825	2,002	3,687	4,764	12,662

The parliamentary return whence the foregoing is derived, gives minute statistics for each parish, the aggregate of which is (for 1826), births, 299; marriages, 34; deaths, 219. Persons employed in agriculture, 689; manufactures, 71; commerce, 591. Number of scholars, males, 274; females, 233. *Acres of land in* onions, 50; arrow-root, 51; potatoes, 197; barley and oats, 57; garden vegetables, 106:—total

acres, 461; *the produce* of which was, onions, 328,830 lbs. at 6*s.* 8*d.* per 100 lbs.; arrow-root, 18,174 lbs. at 1*s.* 8*d.* per lb.; potatoes, 10,404 bushels, at 4*s.* 4*d.* per bushel; barley, 435 bushels, at ditto; garden vegetables, 65,800 lbs. at 1½*d.* per lb.; Number of horses, 250; horned cattle, 1,538; sheep, 228; and goats, 199. The colonial revenue is about £10,000 per annum,* of which £6,000 is derived from custom duties. The value of the trade inwards in 1831 was £79,953; outwards, £27,428, and the shipping inward, tons, 15,500.†

The colonists have their own Legislative Assembly and council; the men are distinguished for their industry, the women for their beauty, and both sexes are celebrated for their morals and hospitality. Although the Bermudas are not, properly speaking, West India settlement, they are, or I should now say have been, always included among the western slave colonies, I have, therefore, given this brief sketch of these singular isles of the Atlantic, the origin of which I am unable to account for, unless I consider them the remains of the vast continent *Atalantis*, which, tradition informs us, sunk beneath the ocean.

* Bermudas Gross Revenue and Expenditure in pounds sterling:—

	REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.
	Colonial.	Parliamentary Grant.	Total.	
1828	9,789	4,000	13,789	27,813
1829	10,397	4,000	14,397	15,834
1830	13,902	4,000	17,802	15,452
1831	9,484	4,000	13,484	16,200

† In 1825 there was of sugar exported 406,347 lbs.; of rum, 113,636 gal. of molasses, 7,744 lbs.; and of coffee, 9,400. This amount of staple W. I. produce has of late years diminished.

CHAPTER XV.

HONDURAS.

LOCALITY — EARLY HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT— GEOLOGY—CLIMATE— RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS—NATURAL PRODUCTIONS—COMMERCE— GOVERNMENT—FINANCES—STATE OF SOCIETY, &c. &c.

LOCALITY. The British settlement of Honduras, in the Province of Yucutan, is situate in the southern part of the North American continent, between the parallels of 17 and 19 N. lat. and 88 to 90 W. long., on a peninsula extending from the W. side of the Bay of Honduras (that either gives or takes its name from the settlement) to the sea, northwardly forming the Bay of Campeachy on the W. and the Bay of Honduras* on the E. side of the peninsular, the coast here extending about 270 miles—but the inland boundaries are ill-defined. According to Henderson, the line which includes the settlement commences at the mouth of the Rio-Grande, or Hondo, whose course it follows and afterwards runs parallel with for thirty miles—then, turning S., passes through the New River Lake, in a straight line, to the river Balize, up which it ascends for a considerable distance—and then again proceeds S. till it reaches the head of the Sibun, whose windings it pursues to the sea-coast†—the whole settlement embracing an area of 62,750 square miles.

HISTORY. The Honduras coast was discovered by Columbus in 1502—its period of early settlement is very vague. At first it was occasionally resorted to by mahogany and

* The Spanish term Hondura, signifying depth, was thus given to the coast by its discoverers from the great depth of water along the shore.

† The Mosquito shore—the Indians of which are in alliance with, and, in some respects, subject to, the Crown of Great Britain—extends from Cape Gracios a Dios, southerly, to Punta Gorda and St. Juan's river; N. W. and Westerly, to Romain river; and S. E. beyond Boco del Toro to Coclee or Coli, near the river Chagre and Porto Bello.

other wood-cutters, whose chief place of residence was then a small island called St. George's Key, about nine miles to the N. E. of the town of Balize, the present capital of the settlement. The first *regular* establishment of British log-wood cutters was made at Cape Cartoche by some Jamaica adventurers, whose numbers increased so that, in a short time, they occupied as far S. as the river Balize, in the Bay of Honduras, and as far W. as the island of Triste and the Laguna de los Terminos, adjacent to Campeachy. The territorial jealousy of the Spaniards was soon roused, and the Governor of Campeachy fitted out several expeditions against the logwood-cutters, in which he not only failed but, on two occasions, in 1659, and 1678, the cutters actually took possession of the town of Campeachy, without a single cannon, and aided only by the seamen engaged in the trade.

By a treaty concluded with Spain in 1670, by by Sir W. Godolphin, the seventh article generally, though not specifically, embraced the territorial right of British occupancy at Honduras—and in consequence the English population fast augmented, the number of whites (no negroes were introduced) being then 1700. The jealousy of the Spanish monarch at the success of the English led to a renewed discussion of the territorial right of our settlers, which the imbecile ministers of the pusillanimous Charles II. so far admitted as to direct the Governor of Jamaica (Sir Thomas Lynch,) in 1671, to inquire into the same, and had it not been for the spirited and patriotic conduct of Sir Thomas Lynch, the conduct of Spain would have been sanctioned by the court of St. James'. The Spaniards at all events determined to drive the woodmen from the Campeachy shore, and, by 1680, they succeeded in confining the English to the limits now occupied.

From this period the establishments on the other side of Cape Cartoche were entirely abandoned by the settlers. In 1718 the Spaniards sent a large force to try to dispossess the English from the Belize river, as they had done from the opposite coast, but the bold front of the log wood cutters de-

terred the Castilians, who contented themselves with erecting a fortification in the N. W. branch, of which they held possession for a few years, and finally abandoned it. The logwood cutters were left for thirty-six years in peace, until the attack on Truxillo by the English in 1742, which led to the long projected expedition of 1754, to exterminate the latter from Honduras. By the treaty of peace in 1763, the Spaniards were compelled to give a formal permission of occupancy to the British colonists, though they subsequently endeavoured to annul it.

The Spaniards made another attack on the settlements in 1779, destroyed a great deal of property, and marched off many of the English settlers of both sexes, blindfolded and in irons to Merida, the capital of Yucutan, and thence shipped them to the Havannah, where they were kept in captivity until 1782; but, in 1784, a commission from the crown of Spain was authorized 'to make a formal delivery to the British nation of *the lands allotted* for the cutting of logwood,' &c. It is necessary to state this explicitly, because many persons are not only ignorant whether Honduras is an island, or part of the continent, but very many, who are aware of the position of the settlements, think the British have merely a right to logwood and mahogany cutting in the Bay of Honduras, and that it is not a territorial occupancy of the British crown, which, in fact it is, as much as Jamaica or any other settlement. The last Spanish attack on the settlements was during the war in 1798, and consisted of an expedition of 3,000 men, under the command of Field Marshal O'Neil, who was gallantly repulsed by the 'Bay Men,' (as the Honduras settlers are termed), for which they received the thanks of His Majesty.*

PHYSICAL ASPECT. The sea coast of our territory at the Bay of Honduras† is low, and the shore studded with low

* This act of conquest is a perfectly good title of occupancy.

† The bay reaches from Cape Catoche, in 21.31, the N. point of the peninsula of Yucutan, to Cape Honduras, in 16 S. Lat. and 86 W. Long. From thence the coast, comprehending Cape Gracias a Dios, and extending between 500 and 600 miles to the mouth of the Rio de San Juan as it

and verdant isles (keys); from the land the coast gradually rises into a bold and lofty country, interspersed with rivers and lagoons, and covered with the noblest forests.

The town of Balize,* the capital of the Honduras settlement, is divided into two parts by the river Balize, which empties itself by two mouths in a tortuous manner into the sea, at the western side of the Honduras Bay, where, as before observed, the shore is extremely flat, with numerous keys or small islands, dispersed along the coast, and densely covered with trees or shrubs, so exactly resembling each other as to puzzle the most experienced sailor, and rendering navigation exceedingly difficult.† That part of Balize which flows from the Nicaragua lake, is known by the name of the Mosquito shore; within these limits lie the settlements which have been considered the dependencies of Jamaica

* Called by the Spaniards, *Valize*; corrupted from the original, Wallis, the noted English buccaneer.

† For the same reason given under the Trinidad chapter, I append, from the Honduras Almanac, the following directions for making the coast of Honduras and the harbour of Balize; together with a description of the bay light-house.

The Island of Bonacca should be made early in the day, so that you may run down to the middle or west end of *Ruatan* by the evening, and from thence take your departure for the *Southern Four Keys*, at 6, 7, or 8 o'clock, according to the breeze.

If you take your departure from the middle of *Ruatan* steer W. N. W. ½ W. making that course good. To avoid *Glover's Reef* keep to leeward, and on no account whatever run more than 45 miles from *Ruatan* before day-light; if you run more than that distance you are in danger of running your vessel on the Reef. At day light, if you do not see the Keys, make sail, and you will soon lift them. The principal Key is called *Half Moon Key*. On the Key there is a light-house, elevated about 50 feet from the surface of the sea; its lat. is 17.12 N. and long. 87.28 W. A fixed light is exhibited from sun-set to sun rise each night. It was lit on the 1st December, 1821. This highly useful building is situated on the eastern point of the island, and resembles a pyramid. The whole is neatly shingled and painted white. These keys ought to be made as early in the day as possible, in order to ensure an anchorage in harbour before night. It frequently happens that vessels, after leaving *Ruatan*, are becalmed during the night, and, in consequence, they will not make *Half Moon Key* before the afternoon. In this case it is advisable to brace sharp upon a wind, and beat to windward all night, tacking every two hours; for it must be noticed that the current sets strongly down on the *Southern Four Keys Reef*, and several vessels have been lost on this Reef owing to their laying-to; and by keeping the light in sight till morning it will be sufficient to prevent accident by maintaining your position till you get a pilot, or till you have the day before you. Should it happen that pilots cannot be had, all possible sail must be made, keeping a watch at the mast-head, and you will soon discern *Hat Key*, with only low trees upon it. After rounding the elbow of the Reef, steer W., and you will very soon lift the island of *Turneff*. At the south end of this island is *Key Bokel*, with several cocoa-nut trees upon it, and where *pilots* formerly resided. You may round this key by your lead, and if it be later than three o'clock, P. M. you must anchor there for the night. The anchorage

is situate on the S. or right bank of the river, along the eastern edge of a point of land is completely insulated by a canal,

is about one mile and a half from the *Key*, that is, bring the *Key* to bear about E. by S.; but your lead and your eye is the best *pilot* for this anchorage. You anchor on a fine white sand-bank. The first sounding you will get is about ten fathoms; run in three or four fathoms, clewing up your sails as fast as possible, and giving the vessel at least 40 fathoms of cable, for the sand is so very hard, that with a short scope you will certainly drift off the bank, and then you have no bottom. If this should be the case, you must heave up immediately, and make sail again to get on the bank. In the morning get under weigh at day-light, and steer N. W. by N. for *English Key*, distance 14 miles. *English Key* is situated on the south side of the channel; it is low, round, and sandy, with a few thatched houses and two shingled ones on it, and entirely shaded with trees. Here also stands a *signal-house* and flag-staff, upon which you will perceive the *British* ensign flying, which is always hoisted when a vessel heaves in sight; but should any signal or other device be hoisted at such *flag-staff* you will take no notice of the same; it is intended as a communication to the town of *Belize*. On the opposite side of the channel, that is, on the N. side, there is another small key of the same size, called *Goff's Key*, about half a mile to the eastward of which is a little sand patch, nearly even with the water, called by the *pilots* the *Sand Bore*. This is the place you must anchor at, for it is impossible for a stranger to proceed any further without a *pilot*, as the channel becomes so very intricate, and the various keys have such a similarity in their appearance, that a description of them would be useless to the commander of a vessel. When you have made out *English* and *Goff's Keys*, run for them, but mind and keep nearer to *Goff's* than *English* as there is a dangerous reef off the latter. The pilots' mark for anchorage here, is to bring three little keys, situated to the northward of *Goff's Key*, called CURLEW, SERGEANT'S, and PANCHUT KEYS, a little open to the eastward of *Goff's Key*. There are no trees on *Curlew* but bush, such as bay, cedar, and lillywood grass. *Sergeant's Key* has a rugged appearance, and is easily distinguished by its several cocoa-nut trees, on which there are two shingled houses; and *Panchgut Key* is small and round, with two trees in the centre. From this anchorage your ship can be seen from the *Government House* of *Balize*, and in a few hours it is possible to have a *pilot* from the *town*.

The Light House of Honduras, situate on *Half Moon Key*, or Isle, is about 43 miles E. by S. southerly from Belize. Like all the islands with which the Bay of Honduras is studded, its appearance at a distance is flat, but, on a nearer approach, it is found to be more elevated than the keys in the neighbourhood. On this Bay stands the *lighthouse*. In 1821 this highly useful building was erected on the north east point, the most elevated on the island, which is a rocky promontory, nearly 30 feet above the low water mark; and from its base, which is 22 feet square to the lanthorn, it rises about 50 feet. It is in lat. 17.12 N. and long. 87.28 W. It is built in a pyramidal form to within nine or ten feet of the top. There is a fixed reflected light from sun-set to sun-rise, for which the public of Honduras allow the contractor the sum of £400 currency per annum. By day the light-house, being painted white, serves as an excellent beacon. In days of yore this delightful spot was much resorted to, and at several periods was the residence of the buccaneers when they infested these seas.*

This key is now the chief residence of the branch pilots. They are a set of men remarkable for their abstemious habits, activity, and humanity on all occasions; and there hardly can be remembered an instance of their deviation from duty.

* There are many traditions of treasures having been buried here by them when closely pursued by the Spaniards, which have induced some individuals to search in the hope of a discovery; but as yet every trial has proved unsuccessful, notwithstanding a superstition which accredits the nocturnal visit of a spectre, who, though in guise of a mutilated mortal, yet, in an unearthly horridness, appears to guard them at the hour described by Burns, as

'Of night's black arch the keystane.'

It is to be feared that every attempt to recover the supposed wealth will be, as heretofore, unavailing.

on its western side which runs across from a small arm of the sea and bounds the town on its S. side.

The number of houses are nearly 500, many of them convenient, well built, spacious, and even elegant; they are chiefly constructed of wood, and raised 10 feet from the ground. The streets are regular, running parallel N. and S. and intersected by others, the main one running in a N. E. direction (to a bridge crossing the river and facing the chief quays and wharfs)* from the government house, which is situate on the S. E. point or angle of the island, on the right bank of the river, and bounded on the S. and E. by the sea. The church is situated behind the government house on the E. side of the main street, and the whole town is shaded by groves and avenues of the cocoa-nut and tamarind trees. To the N. of Balize is an extensive morass, three miles in circumference, now being drained. Fort George is situate about half a mile from the river on a small islet; it is low, 600 feet long and 200 broad, principally formed of the ballast from the shipping, every vessel being obliged to deposit a portion of ballast proportioned to its tonnage. The aspect of the interior is worthy of notice. The falls in different parts of the river are extremely grand, and the scenery along the banks really sublime; as a specimen the river and lagoon of Manatee, situated ten leagues S. of Balize may be selected. At about a mile from the mouth of the river, is a magnificent

* The bridge which connects the northern to the southern town was built in 1818; its span is 220 feet, the width 20. It is constructed entirely of timber, and rests on coppered piles of wood, which are found in abundance in this country, remarkable for their durability; indeed, the slowness with which they yield to decomposition, may almost entitle them to the appellative imperishable. Government gave £1,000 sterling towards the expence of erecting it. The entire is well compacted, and secured by balustrades on either side. The appearance of this building from the Balize roads is very pleasing; the thick forests of evergreen, with which the banks of the river are dotted, form a rich back scene, and the many objects of various characters representing commerce and recreation, dispersed on either side, form a picture of no inconsiderable interest.

sheet of water, usually denominated the Lagoon, which extends in a northerly direction for several leagues. The surrounding scenery is very romantic, embracing immense mountains, which descend in many places to its margin, and intersected by vallies opening into woody ranges of vast extent, possessed almost solely by wild herds of various animals, such as the tiger, antelope, armadillo, quash, opossum, racoon, and several species of deer; among the last named, the velvet deer is much esteemed for its soft and delicate flavour. The sportsman also finds ample amusement among the feathered tribe, as quails, plover, pigeons, pheasants, and wild turkeys, are abundant in these regions of silence. Among these vast ridges, where no stream flows to cool the parched earth, nature, ever bountiful to all her creatures, has placed large marshy spots, or shallow ponds, the banks of which are frequented by the wild duck and almost every species of aquatic bird. These ponds contain vast quantities of fish during the greatest part of the year; but at the season of drought their situation may be easily discovered by the traveller at a great distance, from the quantity of sea-fowl which hover over them to prey upon the putrid fish that have been destroyed by the evaporation of the waters. At this season the alligator* also travels to these marshes to partake of the fish thus yearly provided. It is very singular that many of those ponds, scattered through the flat country, which have no apparent communication with each other, should annually abound with the same species of fish. The lake, or lagoon of Manatee, is supplied in the wet season by innumerable rivulets; but, during the dry months, by three streams only, viz. Corn

* This extraordinary animal leaves his usual residence, and goes inland to partake of the fish yearly provided as above detailed. He wanders these trackless wilds, from one pond to another, in search of fish, and not unfrequently has been seen many miles in the interior. Notwithstanding the strength of this terrific animal, such is the awe of man with which the most powerful creatures are filled, that he seems timid, from the extreme caution with which he pursues his course, and, by the motionless posture in which he lies, he shows his desire to remain unnoticed if he hears the least noise.

Creek, Plantation Creek, and the Main River, which empty themselves into it. Although they are called creeks, they extend so far into the interior that their sources are unknown to the British settlers. The banks of the river are picturesque, and divested of that sameness which marks most of the rivers on this coast.*

Eight to ten miles from the lakes the rapids begin, and the high rocky banks of the river wear a delightful appearance—a little further on (it is thus vaguely stated by the Honduras almanack,) there is an extensive cataract about a quarter of a mile in length, and of considerable acclivity.† A cluster of beautiful caves, through which the river winds its way, and beneath which the traveller must pass, is next arrived at. These magnificent natural excavations of the mountains are semicircular at the entrance, and about five yards in dia-

* About a mile from the lake is an establishment of disbanded soldiers, from the black regiments, that were broken up on the late peace. They have cleared a considerable spot of ground, and constitute the only regular settlement that could be formed by these Africans.

† Colonel Galindo has furnished an interesting paper to the Royal Geographical Society on the *Usumasinta*, which takes its rise not far from the source of the Balize, on the opposite side of the chain of mountains that bounds the Honduras territory. He describes it as remarkable among the rivers of this part of America, not only for the length of its course, the advantages of its navigation, the fertility of its banks, and the superiority of the climate of the district through which it flows, but also for the almost total ignorance in which even the inhabitants of the surrounding country remain with respect to its relative position, its course and branches. Part of the rich but wild territory of the Mayas is watered by the Usumasinta, which, in its course from E. to W. receives the important navigable river of Chicsoi; after which its course to the sea inclines to the N. W., its principal mouth being the port of *Victoria*, in the Gulf of Mexico, to the W. of the lake of Laguna de Terminos. The river Tabasco, which, near the sea, joins the Usumasinta, is much frequented by vessels from the United States of North America, which sail up to San Juan Bautista, the capital of the state of Tebasco. The banks of the Usumasinta, after passing the chain of mountains which separates the Maya territories from the Mexican states, are studded with villages of logwood cutters. The ruins of Palenque, an ancient and magnificent city in the Maya country, well deserve further investigation.

meter. Within the cave the arch rises to the height of 100 feet, and leads to another low arch, which, being passed, a second cavern of large size opens, beyond which is a third, with a circular orifice through which the river enters. During the floods the mouths of the caverns are filled with water, which boils up with prodigious fury, and thus detains travellers many days before they can pass through the caves or tunnels. In the rainy season, as the water increases on the upper, or inland sides of the mountains, the river forces its passage through the interstices and openings in its sides with tremendous noise, forming an indescribably grand cascade of from forty to fifty feet high issuing from an hundred orifices.*

The immense chain of mountains which form the inland frontier of the British territory, has only one pass—that leading to Peten, which is merely a pathway through rocky dells, and might be defended by a few men. The mountains are covered with impenetrable forests and brushwood, and contain abundance of the finest mahogany.

The face of the country is technically divided into the Pine and Cahoun ridges from the respective locations of these trees; the pine trees extend over immense tracts of country, presenting to the eye the resemblance of an interminable open park, clothed with verdure, and exhibiting an appearance of taste and design, rather than accident. The Cahoun ridge is covered with gigantic trees, such as the wild cotton, and other vast trees, and the fertility of the soil occasions much brushwood.

Geology. The first geological feature requisite for the knowledge of man, is the capability of the soil to grow food. In this respect Honduras is not behind hand in fertility to any spot in the Old or New World. The soil of the Cahoun ridge consists of a deep loam produced by decomposed vegetable matter, and capable of growing every European, as

* There are also magnificent caves in the river Libun, eight or ten days' journey from Balize, and some interesting creeks or caverns exist in the creeks or arms of the old river.

well as tropical aliment. The Pine ridge land has a substratum of loose reddish sand, and its indigenous products exhibit those varieties of the vegetable kingdom, whose assimilative powers are strong and perennial. Extensive natural prairies, or pastures spread over this soil. An inexhaustibly rich alluvial soil exists on the margin of the numerous creeks and rivers which stud the country.

Veins of fine marble, and mountains of alabaster, are known to exist; valuable chrystals have been found within 180 miles of Balize; and fine pieces of transparent feltspar lie along the banks in many places, which are used in ornamental stucco work. Gold has at various periods been found in the Roaring Creek, (a branch of the Balize river,) but no trouble has been taken to ascertain from whence it proceeded. Quantities of lava and volcanic substances have been found in different situations. Labouring Creek, about 100 miles inland, on the Balize, is remarkable for the petrifying properties which it possesses; its waters have a powerful cathartic effect on strangers, and a healing property when applied externally to an ulcer.

Climate. The climate about Balize is generally moist; in July, the dryest and hottest month of the year, the average maximum heat is 83 F. the medium 82, and the minimum 80, but though the absolute heat appears so great during the hot months, yet it is so tempered by the sea breezes, which almost constantly prevail from the N. E., S. E. or E. that the air feels pleasant and often cool, but, on the wind shifting to the N. or W., the atmosphere becomes sultry and often oppressive.* During the wet seasons, which lasts five months, the mercury sinks to 60. The variation in the temperature is very great, sometimes 15 between 6 A. M. and 2 P. M. and at night 20 or 25 less than in the day.

* Although I have given in every possible instance a thermometrical register for each British Colony, I wish the observations which I made in the 1st volume, under the 'Climate of Bengal,' to be borne in mind.

Thermometrical Register at Balize, Honduras:—

	THERMOM.			WINDS.	REMARKS.
	Max.	Med.	Min.		
January -	77	75	72	W. N. and N.W.	Generally dry, fine weather, some rain.
February -	78	78	75	W. E. and N.E.	Ditto, with pleasant breezes and showers.
March - -	79	78	74	E. N.E. and W.	Ditto, ditto.
April - -	82	80	78	E. and N E.	Ditto, sea breeze regular.
May - -	83	81	79	E. N.E. and W.	At times dry, then heavy showers, lightning and thunder.
June - -	84	82	80	E. N.N.E. and S.E.	Air moist, cloudy, heavy rain.
July - -	83	82	80	E. N.E. and S.E.	Ditto, thunder and lightning.
August -	83	82	79	E. N.E. and W.	Ditto, ditto.
September	83	82	79	E. W. and N.E.	Fine occasionally.
October -	83	81	78	E. N E. and W.	Fine, with some heavy showers.
November	80	79	74	E. N E. and W.	Dry and pleasant.
December	78	75	71	N. N.E. and W.	Ditto, ditto, slight showers.

It is asserted* by those who know the climate best that Honduras is more favourable to European constitutions than any other climate under the tropics; those who have not trifled with it by intemperance and irregularities enjoy the best health, as demonstrated by the many instances of longevity, European and native, that exist.†

Population. According to a census in 1823 the population was, whites, 217; slaves, 2,468; free people of colour, 809; free blacks, 613; pensioners from discharged West India regiment, 819; detachment of second West India regiment, 231; ditto of Royal Artillery, 22; total, 5,179. The proportions of males and females adults and children, were—

* By the Honduras Almanac.

† Every inducement ought to be held out by Government for settlers to locate themselves on the waste lands of the Honduras territory, where about 60,000 square miles lie untilled.

	Male Adults.	Female Adults.	Male Children.	Female Children.	Total.
Whites - - - -	136	51	20	10	217
Coloured - - -	192	243	183	191	809
Free Black - - -	217	222	93	81	613
Slaves - - - -	1440	628	214	186	2468
Pensioners - - -	650	54	50	65	819
2d West India Regiment -	200	14	10	7	231
Royal Artillery - -	10	4	4	4	22

In 1826 there were, whites—267 males; 65 females. Coloured and free—1,629 males; 826 females. Slaves—1,606 males; 3,502 females. Grand total—3,502 males; 4,393 females. King's troops—379 men; females, 30; children, 47.

The aggregate Population of Honduras from 1823 to 1830 was—*

Years.	White and Free Coloured.		Slaves.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1823	842	798	1654	814	2496	1612
1826	1896	891	1606	804	3502	1695
1829	1596	920	1329	798	2925	1718
1830	937	919	1347	680	2284	1599

VARIOUS CLASSES OF SOCIETY AT HONDURAS.† The blacks of Honduras are not derived from the aborigines of the country, but have been in their own persons or those of their forefathers imported from Africa, either direct or through the

* I have here given three different returns of the population, all derived from different sources; the discrepancy shews the necessity of causing more attention to the statistics of our colonies.

† I am indebted to the Honduras Almanac for this statement, and I cannot help regretting that the latter numbers of this admirable periodical are so deficient owing to the withdrawal of the grant of the magistrates; —no money can be better laid out by the colonial legislatures than in improving their respective almanacs.

West India Islands. Though there are many free blacks, yet for the most part they are either the children of slaves, or have been slaves themselves; and few of them are to be found entirely exempt from those low propensities which are exhibited in a state of barbarism. Some few, however, display some striking features of consistent character. There are some who possess an utter aversion to spirituous liquors, and can by no means be prevailed upon to taste a beverage in which they know any thing of the sort to be a component part; but by far the greater proportion are so strongly addicted to the use of liquors that it is very common to see them exposed to the scorching sun, or the midnight dew in utter insensibility. Some have been accustomed from infancy to indulge in this vice; whilst others in rejecting it, act not so much from a correct principle as from national usage, or original intercourse with Mahometan connexions. As they have come to this and other neighbouring regions from various places, so they maintain the custom of the countries whence they come; and hence their habits in a great measure continue. In order to preserve themselves distinct, and to uphold their customs,* each nation selects one from their body, to whom they give the title of

* The African negroes of Honduras, as is the custom in Jamaica and the other islands, hold, at Christmas, a saturnalia, which continues without interruption for the space of a fortnight. During this time, there is an entire relaxation from all their toils; negroes of all conditions join in sets, and perambulate the streets from morn till night, with colours flying and music playing, to which they keep time in graceful movements, waving their flags and umbrellas to the measured beat of the drum. Wakes and *gumby* are recreations of vivacity among the people; the former present a tolerable resemblance to the Irish wakes, where the house of mourning and the house of feasting are identified as one and the same—and the latter are interesting merely from the circumstance of their being importations from the coast of Africa. Large parties meet at night, at some appointed negro yard, where they commence dancing to the beat of the drum and the music of their own voices. It is really curious to observe the ceremony of these pastimes; and there can be nothing more calculated to impress a stranger with surprise than the different formation of their drums and the variety of their dances.

king, who exercises a certain degree of lordship over his subjects, and receives in return the most marked attention and respect. Their affection for their country is very conspicuous; a black man will share his last plantain with another native of his own land, and seldom distinguishes or addresses him by any other appellative than countryman. They possess upon the whole but little intelligence; their dulness of comprehension, and the difficulty of picturing on the minds of others the ideas present in their own, are at once remarkable and distressing. This remark would apply to several Europeans of the present age, and to very many of the past generation, as well as to the Honduras blacks, and, indeed, the writer of the Honduras Almanac when descanting on the state of society there, subsequently negatives to a great degree this assertion by admitting that there are many who exhibit an originality of talent, and a vigour of mental action in a degree little inferior to their European brethren.

The *coloured* population has arisen from the intercourse of Europeans with Africans or Indians. They, therefore, partake more or less of the qualities of black and white, directly as to their distance from either.

The *Mosquito* shore men sojourning in great numbers in the colony, have long greasy black hair, and countenances remarkable for vacuity of intelligence, but with a muscular formation of body that might serve as a model for a sculptors' Hercules; they walk at a slow and lazy pace, in a state of perfect nudity, devour their food voraciously, and lie down to sleep until absolute hunger causes them to seek a fresh supply. A canoe,* a paddle, and a harpoon, constitute the Mosquito man's whole wealth; with these he can supply the

* The canoe used by the natives here as most subservient to their purposes, is called a *dorey*. The bottom being round, it has a very slight hold of the water, and not unfrequently swamps or capsizes; in which emergency the dexterity of the native in holding on, righting the craft, bailing out the water, and resuming his seat, is truly surprising; she seldom draws more than a few inches when light. Sometimes the dorey is raised upon a keel; it is then called a crean, a craft of handsome model, which answers well in these waters. The rig most used is the

cravings of nature, and beyond these he requires no more. They acknowledge the existence of a good and bad spirit; the latter of whom they propitiate in order to deprecate his malevolence, while they neglect the former on the plea that his goodness is so great as to leave them nothing to apprehend from his wrath. It is customary, as with other savage nations, at their funerals of the dead, to inter the paddle and harpoon in the grave of the deceased, that he may be enabled to work a canoe, and procure sustenance in another state of existence.

The *Indians*, who are the real aborigines of the South American continent, a timid inoffensive race, seem to be guided as much by instinct as reason,—travelling independent of either track or guide, through wood and bush, impervious to others, and performing their journeys with a rapidity and correctness of direction that sets other modes and marks perfectly at defiance. A small bag of maize slung over the shoulder, from which they take a handful by a rivulet or well, is all the refreshment they need; and thus, in a state of nature, they wander with Parthian movements, over wilds unknown to other men, and through forests where one would fancy their uncultivated state alone procures for them the sympathy of wild beasts. Their greatest luxury is composed of the rind of limes, rubbed with corn, and allowed to ferment, which they term Pesso; which, with a little honey added, forms a beverage of which they are particularly fond.

schooner, and the main-sail is that on which most dependence is placed. There is a craft peculiar to this colony, called the pitpan, which is, like the dorey, round at the bottom, but rather more flattened, and without a keel. It is excavated from a solid tree, and is very often 40 or 50 feet long, and from 3 feet to 4 feet 6 inches wide. It is shaped at the ends something like a butcher's tray, and the bottom neatly rounded upwards; this enables the paddlers to run a long way on the beach or shore, and, in some measure, supersedes the necessity of a plank to aid embarkation. The pitpan is usually fitted up in a handsome style, with awnings and curtains of oil cloth on rollers, which enclose seats and space for provision, and is the only mode of conveyance to the mahogany works; indeed, one more pleasant and better adapted to the purpose need not be desired.

They are, almost without exception, addicted to drunkenness to an excessive degree, but appear to be entirely free from vindictive or malicious propensities.

STATE OF SOCIETY, MORALS, &c. Previous to the erection of Jamaica into a bishoprick, the church of England was made the dominant religion of British Honduras, and the facilities afforded for religious instruction by the establishment are by no means contemptible. The school attached to the church establishment is well endowed, and has already exhibited some of the benefits expected to arise from institutions of the kind, in the situations filled by several of its pupils. It is conducted on the Madras system, and the average daily attendance of children is above 100. The attendance on the services of the church is upon the whole also good, and marked throughout by the strictest order and decorum. There are also two other mission schools, the Wesleyan and the Baptist, which are daily becoming more useful, and no doubt in time will effect the object for which they were established. The difficulty of attaining this desirable end is considerably increased by the greater part of the population being engaged at the mahogany works, and spread over a surface of country containing between 50,000 and 60,000 square miles, for at least ten months in the year; some of those who are not so employed are distributed among the keys or islands, at a distance from the shore; the business of others lies upon the waters, in continual traffic with the main; and to these causes may be added, the immoral lives of many Europeans, to whom the poor untutored semibarbarian naturally looks up with reverence and confidence. When there are such obstacles to be surmounted as those presented by local peculiarities, united with the detrimental influence of vicious example, reformation is an Herculean task. Nevertheless, the more atrocious grades of delinquency are happily but seldom witnessed; sometimes the jail will not afford even a single prisoner for the public works; and there are some who do not think it necessary to secure their doors at night. The occurrency of petty larceny,

however, is very frequent, as are also those of other crimes and misdemeanours, which arise from intemperance. A few years back there were very few married couples in Balize, and the sacred institution of marriage was not only neglected but despised; concubinage, if not promiscuous intercourse, &c. were among the besetting sins of the land, and virtue and decency were but little known and less thought of; but now a brighter prospect has opened; marriages are decidedly on the increase; the advantages of families being united under one common surname, the dignity which the matrimonial tie confers on relationship, and the charities of life beautified with the sanction of a divine ordinance are now more highly esteemed and duly appreciated. The legislature has taken advantage of this change of sentiment; and for the encouragement of public morals, have added great facilities to the marriages of slaves by recent laws and regulations. Though there are still a great number of people who can neither read nor write, yet there are also many, in the classes to which these acquirements were formerly unknown, who have made considerable proficiency. To the production of this change, the Honduras Free School has certainly in a very great degree contributed; and this institution has the honour of leading the way in the beneficial work of education.

The Mechanic Arts, as yet, have made but little progress in comparison with what might have been done. The guardians of youth seem to cherish hopes of greater gain from the trade of a carpenter than any other; and hence the great majority of boys are put to that trade; the evil consequences of this system are so apparent that shoals of industry might be set on foot with flattering prospects of success. As an individual rises in the scale of society, it is natural to suppose that his station calls upon him for a certain degree of exertion. The black, from physical causes, seldom rises; but the coloured, approaching nearer to the white, has more elevated ideas of himself, in proportion to his remove from his sable ancestor. But with all this encouragement, the

degree of activity which might reasonably be expected, is seldom evinced. Whether this be attributable to the vacillating effects of climate, or otherwise, remains to be decided. The writer in the Honduras almanac asserts that the inventive faculties of the native artists seem to be only proportioned to the supply of native wants, without even the recommendation of embellishments or design. He is equally indifferent about forming contracts, and completing his stipulated work; and a peculiar inactivity of mind as well as corporal movement, is perceptible even in his manner of working. This has been the reason why architectural designs have not, till lately, been extended to domestic comforts. Some years back this settlement exhibited nothing better than stoccadoed huts, the most primitive shelter imaginable, roofed with a thatch of leaves coarsely and clumsily compacted; now, however, it presents many large and commodious houses, more particularly in Balize.

Food, Vegetation, &c. To detail the great variety of fruit spontaneously produced in Honduras, would far exceed my limits. Oranges, (which are uniformly of excellent quality,) shaddocks, lime, mangoes, melons, pine apples, water melons, avocato pears, cashew, cocoa-nuts, and many others too numerous to mention, are very abundant during their respective seasons. They all grow in the neighbourhood of the town, but are also brought in large quantities from higher plantations. The country abounds with game of every variety, whether fish, flesh, or fowl. The Spaniards, who frequent Balize from Bacalar in open crafts, carry on an extensive trade in poultry, eggs, corn, &c., and, except in very rough weather, the supply of salt water fish is abundant and excellent.*

* The common green turtle, so called from the colour of the fat, when the animal is in a healthy state, is a staple commodity in the market. The turtle is often five feet long, and from 200 lbs. to 250 lbs. in weight. It feeds on a sea grass, which is very abundant in these parts. It is generally taken in nets, and not unfrequently by the harpoon. Sometimes it is watched from the beach to its haunts, where it is secured by being turned

To give a history of the celebrated mahogany tree* or of logwood, (the present staples of Honduras,) would be supererogatory, but there is a valuable timber which covers the country for many thousand acres, and which would prove a valuable article in England, if the timber duties on *colonial* wood were removed; I allude to the *pinus occidentalis*, which grows to sixty feet high, with irregular branches and serrated edged leaves, and which, owing to the quantity of tar and turpentine which the best sort contains, will sink in water when felled.

The pinewood is of course highly inflammable, a property which, to the poor, renders it very valuable; a torch of this wood, one end inserted in the earth, and the other ignited, emits a clear and powerful light, round which may frequently be seen groups of negroes assembled, (their daily task com-

over, and when on its back the creature is unable to rise. It is seldom seen on land. The movements of the turtle are slow, except at the time when they deposit their eggs, which they do at several times after intervals of 14 days. The female lays about 900. The eggs are found in abundance on the low sandy beaches of the keys, towards the Spanish main, between the ports of Omoa and Truxillo.

* The mode of procuring it is to despatch a skilful negro to climb the highest tree on lofty places, for the purpose of discovering mahogany in the woods, which is generally solitary, and visible at a great distance from the yellow hue of its foliage. A gang of from ten to fifty men is then sent out to erect a scaffold round each tree that is selected, and to cut it down about twelve feet from the ground. When felled the logs are with much labour dragged to the banks of the streams, and being formed into crafts, sometimes of 200 united, are floated as many miles to places where the rivers are crossed by strong cables, and then the owners separate their respective shares. It is said that the boughs and limbs afford the finest wood, but in Britain mahogany is more valued on account of size; and none is allowed to be exported to the United States of America exceeding 20 inches in diameter. The *logwood*, on the other hand affects low swampy grounds, growing contiguous to fresh water creeks and lakes, on the edges of which, the roots, the most valuable part of the wood, extend. It is sought in the dry season, and the wood cutters having built a hut in the vicinity of a number of the trees on the same spot, collect the logs in heaps, and afterwards float up a small canoe in the wet season, when the ground is laid under water to carry them off.

pleted,) and occupied in the formation of articles required for their own use, or intended for that of others. Owing to its durability it is, of course, much used by builders. It not only resists the action of the atmosphere, but it is also proof against the chemical influence of the earth even in the dampest situations. It is not uncommon to see posts extracted from the ground in which they have been fixed for years, in as high a state of preservation as when they were first put down; and the only difference they exhibit is increased solidity and hardness, and a strong bituminous smell.

The cahoun (locally pronounced cohoon) tree is chiefly valuable for the elegant vegetable oil it yields; which when unadulterated is almost colourless, being paler than the cold drawn castor oil. It is entirely free from any empyreumatic or fœtid taste, possessing a slight and rather agreeable flavour. It emits a beautiful palish flame without smoke or smell, a property which renders it as a lamp oil, not equalled by any other known, and therefore much in demand in genteel society. Its affinity for oxygen is so remarkably strong, that steel smeared with it very soon rusts. Indeed its caloric is so easily abstracted, that at the temperature of 60, F. it condenses into a white waxlike substance, but when heat is applied it immediately expands and resumes its original appearance. There are several little known woods, of beautiful vein and close texture, which might be turned to a profitable account, such as the iron-wood, claywood, rosewood, palmaletta, dark and beautifully figured, Santa Maria, which possesses the properties of the Indian teake, caoutchouc, or Indian rubber, sapodilla, and innumerable others.

Many other valuable products of the territory would be developed with an increased population, and by the removal in England of the restrictions which check and hamper our colonial prosperity.

GOVERNMENT, FINANCE, COMMERCE, &c. The Government of Honduras is peculiar and worthy of example in young colonies. The Superintendant, as he is termed, is nominated by the Crown to watch over the interests of the settlers, to secure

them from any improper intrusion of foreigners, and to regulate all affairs which more particularly affect the dignity of the crown.* The grand authority of the colony is a mixed legislative and executive power, termed the Magistrates of Honduras, by whom enactments are made; which, on receiving the assent of the King's representative, become laws to be enforced by the executive power. The magistrates in whom the power is thus vested, are in number seven, elected annually by the inhabitants, thus—A poll is opened on the order of the bench to the Provost-Marshal-General, and remains so twenty-one days; at the expiration of which a scrutiny takes place, and the Provost-Marshal-General returns those duly elected, who are sworn into office on being approved of by the Superintendant. They are the Counsellors of His Majesty's Superintendant, the Guardians of the Public Peace, the Judges of all the Lower Courts; they form the Court of Ordinary, they are the Guardians of Orphans, and can delegate their power in the management of the property, to such persons whom they consider worthy of their trust. They are the protectors of all properties of intestate, or insane persons, or of those incapable of managing their own affairs. They settle all salvage on wrecked vessels, stores, and merchandize. They manage the public funds, and control the Treasurer; and no money can be paid without the sanction of four, who sign all orders for the issue; and previous to retiring from office they examine all his accounts, and sign them, if approved. No emolument arises to them—services are entirely gratuitous. Trial by jury, the bulwark of British freedom, is established; and from the decisions of the Court an appeal lies direct to the King in Council, which, however, is rarely made.

The militia of Honduras is a very fine body of men, about 1,000 strong, and consists of a brigade of Royal Artillery, and a regiment of the line; there is also a local maritime force, termed the Prince Regent's Royal Honduras Flotilla. The Superintendant of the settlement is of course Commander

* Until 1783, Honduras was solely governed by magistrates elected by the people. Since then a Superintendant has been added.

in Chief of the Militia, with a fair proportion of Aides-de-Camp, and Staff.

FINANCES. Revenue and Expenditure of Honduras from 1807 to 1830.

	Revenue.	Expenditure.		Revenue.	Expenditure.
1807	£ 7,566	£ 8,291	1819	£ 15,967	£ 16,896
1808	6,005	5,170	1820	17,249	17,266
1809	6,829	6,066	1821	12,306	12,027
1810	9,523	9,604	1822	14,831	14,296
1811	8,643	8,981	1823	19,294	20,112
1812	6,590	6,312	1824	14,125	14,163
1813	5.438	5,848	1825	17,594	17,634
1814	5,474	5,629	1826	13,256	13,755
1815	12,944	12,527	1827	17,415	17,562
1816	10,672	9,276	1828	10,653	10,760
1817	8,168	8,838	1829	11,744	11,759
1818	16,501	18,193	1830	15,673	15,806
Total..	104,353	104,435	Total..	180,107	182,036

The revenue of the colony it will be perceived has considerably increased, and it affords another example to the anti-colonial writers that there is no drain (even in the unstatesmanlike mode of viewing the subject) on the home exchequer. All duties and taxes are levied under the authority of Acts passed in the Legislative Meeting. The income is derived from customs and shipping dues, poll-tax on horses and cattle, domestic licenses, and tax on foreign goods and foreign traders. The custom duties are light, and amount on spirits, wines, and cordials, to *2s. per gallon.*

The following detail of expenditure of this settlement for the year 1826, from its internal revenue, will convey an idea to the British public of the disbursements of the Balize treasury:

His Majesty's Superintendant, £1,000;* Public Treasurer and Collector, £1,000; Colonial Agents, £869; Chaplain to the Settlement, £420; Endowment to the Free School, £167; Public School Master, Public School Mistress, Contractor for the Light-House, £400; Pensions to Paupers £135; Physician to the Hospital, £150; Housekeeper to ditto, £60; Keeper of the Militia Clothing, £184; Adjutant to the Militia, £49; Overseer of Working Party, Pay of Men in the

* All these items are Honduras currency.

Government Schooner, £75; Church Clerk, £70; Sexton, £30 —*Total of fixed annual charges*, £4,742.

Contingent expenses incurred upon the administration of justice and maintenance of the Jail Establishment, £1,811; for the Military Post at Tyger Rim, up the river Balize, £185; Militia Establishment, Saint John's Church, £6,740; Public works and improvements in the town of Balize, £4,102; Mission to Guatemala, Peten, and Bacalar, £414; extraordinary and miscellaneous expenses not enumerated under any particular head, £2,498—Total expended in 1826, £13,755.

Value in English money of the Spanish coins in circulation.

GOLD.—Doubloon, £5. 6*s*. 8*d*.; half ditto, £2. 13*s*. 4*d*.; quarter ditto, £1. 6*s*. 8*d*.; one-eighth ditto, 13*s*. 4*d*.; one-sixteenth, 6*s*. 8*d*. *currency*.

SILVER.—Dollar, 6*s*. 8*d*.; half ditto, 3*s*. 4*d*.; quarter ditto, 1*s*. 8*d*.; one-eighth, 10*d*.; one-sixteenth, 5*d*. *currency*.

COMMERCE.—The trade of Honduras is as yet but in its infancy, although exceeding half a million sterling annually. The value of the imports in 1830 was £234,379, and of the exports £316,151; employing a shipping inwards, of tons, 13,918, and outwards, tons, 16,351, independent of a large coasting trade, carried on by vessels of various burthen belonging to the merchants at Balize.*

The principal Articles of Export from 1824 to 1830, were—†

Years.	Mahogany.	Cedar.	Indigo.
	Feet.	Feet.	Lbs.
1824	5,573,819	2,493	199,867
1825	5,083,170	21,000	211,447
1826	6,385,589	30,171	358,552
1827	6,904,998	19,781	81,767
1828	5,466,806		1,610 leeroons.
1829	4,631,391	912	1,474 ..
1830	4,556,986		2,660 .

* The aggregate burthen of the colonial shipping amounted, in 1830, to 1,551 tons, employing 285 seamen, and it has since increased.

† The documents whence this table (and many others in this Volume) are derived, have been drawn up by the Colonial Office, but never before printed: the export of logwood is not given.

The Mahogany, Logwood, and Nicaragua imported, re-exported and consumed in the United Kingdom, with the taxation thereon, &c.

Years.	MAHOGANY.							LOGWOOD.					NICARAGUA WOOD.*	
	Imported.	Re-exported.	Home Consumption.	Rates of Duty per Ton. Bermuda, Bahamas, or Honduras direct.	Jamaica.	Otherwise Imported.	Net Revenue.	Imported.	Exported.	Home Consumption.	Rate of Duty per Ton. British Plantation.	Foreign Plantation.	Imported.	Re-exported.
	tons.	ton.	tons.	£. s.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£.	tons.	ton.	tons.	s. d.	s. d.	ton.	ton.
1820	16005	862	14007	3 16	11 17 6	11 17 6	76016	5292	5552	4847	9 2	9 2	947	366
1821	13035	1381	14531		5 0 0		72262	8809	4749	5078			267	54
1822	18118	464	15599				72763	17236	5469	9000			1646	351
1823	12334	403	15232				85423	15429	8734	8764			1994	591
1824	16116	206	16029				90779	19105	5967	11034			3556	868
1825	15705	334	14452				90146	22016	6848	12384	3 0	4 6	4853	474
1826	17953	456	12979	2 10	0 4 0	7 0 0	51954	10246	5894	6997			3439	748
1827	19964	1666	19985				68730	10887	7177	7162			3066	1129
1828	19927	1265	18038				74470	14046	6395	9997			1149	1028
1829	19335	341	16546				65765	13893	6227	8852			839	765
1830	15993	1171	15478				59979	16782	5938	10160			1089	367
1831	11542	469	12175				47932	14853	6011	10405			1277	200
1832														
1833														

General View. I cannot conclude this Chapter without expressing my regret, that such an important settlement as Honduras should have been so long neglected at home. It is valuable not only in a political but in a commercial aspect; inasmuch as it opens to our trade new regions and countries, while its rich and fertile lands await only the skilful handicraft of the British emigrant to pour forth the abundance of life. The eloquent annalist of Jamaica, writing within the last two or three years, says, 'it is but within the last few months that the town of *Peten*, situated 230 miles west of Balize, at the head of its magnificent river, has been exposed to speculation, or even to our acquaintance. A road is now open, and a lively intercourse with the British merchants has arisen there. Fleets of Indian pit-pans repair almost weekly to Balize, and return loaded with articles of British manufacture. *Peten*, formerly the capital of the Itzaec Indians, was one of the last conquests of the Spaniards in the year 1679. It stands on an island in the centre of the extensive fresh-water

* The duty on Nicaragua wood imported from all parts was, in 1820, £1. 6*s*. 2*d*. per ton, and in 1825, 15*s*. per ton.

lake Itza, in lat. 16 N., long. 91.16 W. Within 50 miles of it the enterprising spirit of the British settler has already extended the search for mahogany; and what may not be expected from a people so industrious, so judicious, and so persevering. The Itza is 26 leagues in circumference, and its pure waters, to the depth of 30 fathoms, produce the most excellent fish. The islands of *Sepet, Galves, Lopez, Bixit,* and *Coju,* lie scattered over its surface, and afford a delicious retreat to 10,000 inhabitants, who form part of the new republic of central America, within the spiritual jurisdiction of the Mexican diocese of Yucatan. The fertile soil yields two harvests in the year, producing maize, chiappa pepper, balsam, vanilla, cotton, indigo, cocoa, cochineal, brazil wood, and the most exquisite fruits, in wasteful abundance. Several navigable rivers flowing thence are lost in the great Pacific, and suggest an easy communication with the British limits. Within ten leagues of the shores of the Itza lake commences the ridge of the Alabaster mountains, on whose surface glitter in vast profusion the green, the brown, and the variegated jaspers, while the forests are filled with wild and monstrous beasts, the Equus Bisulcus, or Chinese horse, and with tigers and lions, of a degenerated breed. Roads diverge in all directions from this favoured spot, and afford an easy communication with a free channel for British merchandize to San Antonio, to Chichanha, San Benito, Tabasco, and even Campeachy; while throughout the whole country the most most stupendous timbers are abundant. The most valuable drugs, balsams, and aromatic plants, grow wild; and the achiote, amber, copal, dragon's blood, mastic, and almacigo, are everywhere to be gathered.'

Such is the splendid country which England deserves to lose, for she knoweth not its worth. May I hope, however, that my labours in endeavouring to develope the treasures, (by treasures I mean, not gold and silver, but food, raiment, and the necessaries and conveniencies, and even elegancies of life), spread abroad by Nature, for the welfare of millions, will not be without some good result.

Sugar (cwts.) imported into the United Kingdom from the British West India Possessions.*

Years.	Jamaica.	British Guyana.		Trinidad.	Tobago.	Grenada.	St. Vincents.	Barbadoes	St. Lucia.	Dominica.	Antigua.	St. Kitts.	Nevis.	Montserrat	Tortola.	Total.
		Demerara.	Berbice.													
1814	1,448,331	234,393	9,914	142,435	120,571	208,230	235,405	214,492	79,664	34,274	157,023	122,067	54,012	35,067	14,909	3,100,787
1815	1,593,217	322,100	8,318	153,651	120,891	231,883	231,815	196,746	72,320	44,116	160,655	141,338	55,224	24,510	24,103	3,380,887
1816	1,389,412	323,444	15,308	132,893	139,158	266,056	263,433	288,623	69,831	47,035	197,300	124,758	71,656	28,981	51,094	3,408,982
1817	1,717,260	377,796	14,159	128,434	132,388	196,959	242,413	239,723	56,401	31,678	179,371	125,978	45,852	31,214	42,932	3,562,538
1818	1,653,318	420,186	17,764	138,154	112,931	230,959	254,446	249,077	43,006	33,820	228,308	130,218	82,369	36,920	43,573	3,664,049
1819	1,614,347	480,933	29,967	166,581	132,544	204,565	262,034	282,546	78,720	42,897	209,395	141,501	63,154	37,168	86,422	3,832,774
1820	1,769,125	536,561	37,696	156,043	109,195	184,552	216,680	179,951	50,220	45,933	162,573	89,502	36,395	32,815	15,225	3,622,466
1821	1,679,721	492,146	53,258	162,257	108,244	216,368	233,418	211,372	77,971	38,120	207,548	128,436	66,023	33,283	23,469	3,731,625
1822	1,413,718	530,948	55,358	178,491	120,726	199,178	261,160	166,682	92,661	41,650	102,938	89,682	31,696	27,071	22,170	3,304,129
1823	1,417,747	607,858	56,000	186,892	113,015	247,370	232,575	314,630	62,148	39,014	135,466	76,181	44,214	24,466	21,583	3,580,159
1824	1,451,332	615,991	64,609	180,094	123,868	227,014	246,321	245,829	73,100	42,330	222,207	132,585	40,734	30,649	26,559	3,717,722
1825	1,115,366	650,276	58,274	188,927	111,350	209,985	257,800	278,346	82,363	38,036	142,901	78,658	49,770	19,653	13,670	3,795,375
1826	1,500,860	448,487	46,444	206,638	121,598	229,459	271,858	247,729	85,073	45,654	244,514	107,832	73,567	30,482	21,589	3,681,575
1827	1,211,675	711,959	87,972	239,585	71,339	197,796	250,834	203,853	79,046	41,342	75,631	92,226	32,330	19,708	20,761	3,335,457
1828	1,363,974	717,165	85,154	255,703	123,344	269,879	288,062	338,855	83,246	49,956	176,966	121,206	46,182	25,091	13,275	3,958,056
1829	1,386,392	778,805	86,814	292,833	90,633	218,469	258,285	270,860	79,925	56,319	156,658	127,093	51,848	27,238	22,211	3,764,383
1830	1,379,348	780,286	110,967	204,987	93,473	213,160	261,551	336,881	86,791	60,063	158,611	133,452	54,236	20,646	17,099	3,941,551
1831	1,395,893	735,616	122,088	240,765	121,249	185,680	221,662	322,779	50,234	50,339	169,032	101,068	49,923	26,137	15,559	3,808,924
1832	1,431,689	736,536	137,457	312,265	108,100	188,231	186,812	266,464	47,965	58,270	143,336	80,602	30,843	20,855	14,999	3,773,424
1833																
1834																
1835																

* The great importance and value of the British colonies in the West Indies, as regards even sugar alone, is evident from the statement here given, but in addition to this great importation of sweets, a large quantity of molasses must be considered, the importations of which into the United Kingdom since 1820 have been as follows:—

	Cwt.		Cwt.		Cwt.		Cwt.		Cwt.		Cwt.
1820..	39,991	1822..	76,298	1824..	239,088	1826..	290,504	1828..	310,708	1830..	250,648
1821..	58,185	1823..	169,968	1825..	355,592	1827..	392,444	1829..	394,432	1831..	322,876

CHAPTER XVI.

GENERAL WEST INDIA COMMERCE;

PRINCIPALLY IN REFERENCE TO

SUGAR, COFFEE, COCOA, RUM, MOLASSES, &c.

IMPOLICY OF ENORMOUS TAXATION IN ENGLAND ON WEST INDIA PRODUCE — NECESSITY OF GIVING RELIEF TO THE PLANTERS BY PERMITTING THEM TO CARRY ON A DIRECT TRADE WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES, AND ADVANTAGES TO ALL PARTIES OF FREEING OUR COLONIAL COMMERCE FROM LEGISLATIVE RESTRICTIONS AND FISCAL IMPOSITIONS.

Of the importance of the West India Colonies to Great Britain, I trust it is not necessary to speak; they are in fact tropical gardens for the growth of various articles which our temperate clime will not produce;* rendered more valuable by their contiguity to England, and by their geographical position as regards the vast and improving continent of America, and its numerous rising and prosperous republics.† I do not advert to the lands in the W. I. islands being owned by Englishmen, because the same occurs with most of our other colonies. Nor do I desire to lay much stress on the calculation of the balance of trade in favour of England,‡ or of

* Quantities of principal articles imported into the United Kingdom in 1830, from the British West India Islands. Cloves, 10,000 lbs.; cochineal, 111,000 lbs.; cocoa-nuts, 711,923 lbs.; coffee, 27,460,421 lbs.; dye and hard woods, 2,000 tons; logwood, 10,000 tons; mahogany, 12,000 tons; ginger, 6,000 cwts.; molasses, 250,000 cwts.; castor oil, 10,000 lbs.; pepper, 20,000 lbs.; pimento, 3,500,000 lbs.; sarsaparilla, 50,000 lbs.; rum, 6,500,000 gall.; sugar, 4,000,000 cwt.; tobacco manufactured, 3,000 lbs.; cotton wool, 4,000,000 lbs.

† At present even a large proportion of the manufactures (£700,000 worth) shipped from England for Jamaica, are re-exported from the latter place to the Spanish Main.

‡ Since the establishment of the British West India colonies the exports

capital or wealth, drawn from the W. Indies to the mother country, because that also has a general reference to all colonies, and, if carried to excess, is injurious to the latter, and therefore ultimately detrimental to the former. But I claim for the W. Indies, (or British plantations as they are sometimes termed,) that, in common with all our colonies, *commercial justice* may be accorded them; it may have suited the temper and taste of byegone times to have established particular monopolies, and split the nation into sections; such measures will no longer answer—we must cease legislating for party interests—we must look to general not individual weal as the best means of promoting human happiness. Reserving, however, an exposition of sound colonial policy for my last volume, I proceed with my historical details, and first with reference to the trade in—

SUGAR.

That a nutritive so delightful as sugar should have long remained unknown in its concrete form to our ancestors, is another proof of the comparative modern date of civilization in Europe—I say *of Europe*—because the process of extracting and crystallizing the juice of the cane has been practised from time immemorial in the East, particularly in China, where, however, dormant or stationary, the human mind may now be, it is certain that at one period it had all the inventive faculties in full play. According to chemical analysis sugar is a vegetable oxyde, composed of oxygen, carbon, and hydrogen; 100 parts containing (according to Ure) of oxygen, 50.33; carbon, 43.38; hydrogen, 6.29. It may however be described as comprising, in the most concentrated vegetable form, the principle or nutriment of life, *azote*, a fact which admits of natural demonstration, for not only do the inhabitants

from them to Great Britain amounted to £430,000,000. sterling; and the value of merchandize exported from Great Britain to the West Indies, £230,000,000:—balance in favour of Great Britain, £200,000,000:—annual value of imports from West Indies, £8,000,000: ditto of exports to £4,000,000:—expended *anually* in England, £4,000,000.

of every part of the globe delight in sugar, when obtainable, but all animated beings; the beasts of the field—the fowls of the air, insects, reptiles, and even fish have an exquisite enjoyment in the consumption of sweets, and a distaste to the contrary; in fact sugar is the alimentary ingredient of every vegetable substance encumbered with a greater or less proportion of bulky innutritious matter. A small quantity of sugar will sustain life, and enable the animal frame to undergo corporeal (I may add *mental*, from personal experience,) fatigue better than any other substance; often have I travelled with the Arab over the burning desert, or with the wild Afric through his romantic country, and when wearied with fatigue and a noontide sun, we have sat ourselves beneath an umbrageous canopy, and I have shared with my companion his travelling provender, a few small balls of sugar mixed with spices, and hardened into a paste with flour. Invariably have I found two or three of these balls, and a draught of water, the best possible restorative and even a stimulus to renewed exertion.

During crop time in the West Indies the negroes, although then hard worked, become fat, healthy and cheerful, and the horses, mules, cattle, &c. on the estate partaking of the refuse of the sugar-house, renew their plumpness and strength. In Cochin-China, not only are the horses, buffaloes, elephants, &c. all fattened with sugar, but the body guard of the King are allowed a sum of money daily with which they must buy sugar-canes, and eat a certain quantity thereof in order to preserve their good looks and *embonpoint;* there are about 500 of these household troops, and their handsome appearance does honour to their food and to their royal master. Indeed, in Cochin-China, rice and sugar is the ordinary breakfast of people of all ages and stations; and the people not only preserve all their fruits in sugar, but even the greater part of their leguminous vegetables, gourds, cucumbers, radishes, artichokes, the grain of the lotus, and the thick fleshy leaves of the aloes. I have eaten in India, after a six

months' voyage, mutton killed in Leadenhall market, preserved in a cask of sugar, and as fresh as the day it was placed on the shambles. [In the curing of meat I believe a portion of *sugar* is mixed with salt and saltpetre.] The Kandyans of Ceylon preserve their venison in earthern pots of honey, and after being thus kept two or three years its flavour would delight Epicurus himself.

In tropical climes the fresh juice of the cane is the most efficient remedy for various diseases, while its healing virtues are felt when applied to ulcers and sores. Sir John Pringle says, the plague was never known to visit any country where sugar composes a material part of the diet of the inhabitants. Drs. Rush, Cullen, and other eminent physicians are of opinion that the frequency of malignant fevers of all kinds is lessened by the use of sugar; in disorders of the breast it forms an excellent demulcient, as also in weaknesses and acrid defluxions in other parts of the body. The celebrated Dr. Franklin found great relief from the sickening pain of the stone by drinking half-a-pint of syrup of coarse brown sugar before bed-time, which he declared gave as much, if not more relief, than a dose of opium. That dreadful malady, once so prevalent on shipboard, scurvy—has been completely and instantaneously stopped by putting the afflicted on a sugar diet. The diseases arising from worms, to which children are subject, are prevented by the use of sugar, the love of which seems implanted by nature in them; as to the unfounded assertion of its injuring the teeth, let those who make it visit the sugar plantations and look at the negroes and their children, whose teeth are daily employed in the mastication of sugar, and they will be convinced of the absurdity of the statement. I might add many other facts relative to this delightful nutriment. I conclude, however, with observing, that I have tamed the most savage and vicious horses with sugar, and have seen the most ferocious animals domesticated by means of feeding them with an article which our baneful fiscal restrictions and erroneous

commercial policy has checked the use of in England, where millions pine, sicken, and perish for want of nutriment.*

The extended consumption of sugar in England began with its cultivation in the British W. I. islands. In 1466 its use was confined to medicines and feasts, and was thus continued until 1580, when sugar was exported from Brazil to Portugal, and thence to this country. In 1641 sugar canes were transplanted from Brazil to Barbadoes, and thence to our other Western possessions; and, in 1643, the English settlers in St. Christopher's made very good sugar, an example which was soon followed in the other islands. The moment, however, that its consumption extended in England that moment the Government stepped in with the tax-gatherer to mar the efforts of human industry, and to check human happiness. The progressive increasing rate of taxation was as follows:—In 1661 at 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt., in 1669 at 3*s.*, in 1703 at 3*s.* 4*d.*, in 1747 at 4*s.* 10*d.*, in 1759 at 6*s.* 4*d.*, in 1779 at 6*s.* 8*d.*, in 1781 at 11*s.* 8*d.*, in 1782 at 12*s.* 3*d.*, in 1787 at 12*s.* 4*d.*, and in 1791 at 15*s.* The natural result of this impolitic taxation was to check consumption; in 1787 but 77,355 tons of sugar were retained for home use, while ten years previously the consumption had been 81,000 tons;—in 1790 the consumption decreased to 76,811 tons; in 1791 it fell to 70,160 tons, in 1792 to 68,000 tons. The financier of the day, however, would not take warning, and in 1797 the duty on British plantation was raised to 17*s.* 6*d.* per cwt., and 5*s.* 2*d.* per cwt. was levied on East-India sugar, in addition to a previous *ad valorem* duty of £37. 16*s.* 3*d.* per cent.: the result was a further reduction of consumption, which in 1797

* It is impossible (says Mr. M'Queen, of Glasgow, in his lucid evidence before Parliament, 8th February 1832), for English weavers earning only from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* a week *to consume sugar* or any thing else. For the fullest confirmation on this point, and evidence of the deterioration which revenue and commerce experience from the impoverishment of the working classes, see a very important *brochure* by John Maxwell, Esq. Jun. the Member for Lanarkshire, whose efforts have been so strenuously, so ably, and so disinterestedly devoted to ameliorating the miseries of his fellow creatures, particularly those of the meritorious hand-loom weavers.

amounted to only 63,000 tons, being a reduction of nearly 20,000 tons in the course of a few years owing to taxation.

In order, however, to forge rivets for the chains of other nations money must be had, and accordingly the tax went on almost yearly augmenting, until 1805 it was £1 7*s.* per cwt. on West-India sugar, and £1 9*s.* 8*d.* on East-India, in addition to £1 7*s.* per cent. *ad valorem!* The consumption, it is true, slightly increased notwithstanding the rapid augmentation of the tax, owing to extended production keeping down the price, in consequence of the increased consumption of tea and coffee, and by reason of the Bank restriction act augmenting the supply of money. The progressive and discriminating rates of duty levied on the two sugars in the English markets, up to 1833, will be best seen by the following table:—

Rates of Duty on West and East India Sugars in England.

PERIODS.	West India Sugar, per Cwt.			East India Sugar, per Cwt.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
In 1803	1	4	0	1	6	4
— 1804	1	6	6	1	9	1
From 1805 to 1809	1	7	0	1	9	8
In 1810	1	8	6	1	11	6
From 1811 to 1812	1	7	0	1	10	0
—— 1813 to 1815	1	10	0	1	13	0
—— 1816 to 1817	1	7	0	1	18	0
—— 1818	1	10	0	2	0	0
—— 1819 to 1830	1	7	0	1	17	0
—— 1831 to 1833	1	4	0	1	12	0
Average Duty....	1	7	1	1	12	8

In addition, there was an *ad valorem* duty on East India sugar, which from 1787 to 1797 was £37 16*s.* 3*d.* per cent.; 1798 to 1802 was £42 16*s.* 3*d.* ditto; 1803 to 1813 varied from £1 7*s.* to £1 ditto.

The result of this mischievous policy may be readily foreseen; the importations of the E. I. sugars of course fell off, and the total consumption of the country on the aggregate of a series of years will be found to have considerably diminished.

From 1804 to 1813, 29,898,516 cwts.; 1814 to 1823, 27,078,857—*Decrease* 2,819,659. cwts.

Thus, with an augmented population—in time of peace—a great reduction in the cost of production, freight, &c., there was in ten years a diminution in the consumption of sugar to the extent of upwards of 300,000,000 lbs. weight!

Even in Great Britain alone (independent of Ireland) the result has been most disastrous to the commerce of the country and the health of the people: the consumption was, per head, in 1801, 440 oz.; 1811, 429 oz.; 1821, 333 oz.; 1831, 393 oz.—*Decrease* on the two latter periods 143 oz. Had it not been for the reduction of the duty in 1830, the decrease would have been much more than it now stands at.

The consumption of sugar in the United Kingdom for the year 1810 was 3,769,565 cwts.; 1832, 3,655,000 cwts. —*Decrease*, 114,565.*

The consumption of the distilleries is included, it is true, in the year 1810, and we cannot accurately ascertain the amount; but admitting the distilleries to have consumed a large quantity, we find that in 1808 (not a year including distillery sugars) the consumption of Great Britain was 2,842,813 cwts., while so late as 1825 it was no more than 2,655,959. Nor has the revenue derived by the state been more fortunate than the commerce of the country. For 16 years the duty derived from the sugar in Great Britain was—from 1807 to 1814, £27,723,224; 1815 to 1822, £26,648,473—*Decrease*, £1,074,751.

That this diminished consumption (whether positively or relatively as regards the increase of population and wealth) was not owing to a lessened supply or cultivation in tropical countries is thus evident:

* To make this *decreased consumption* more evident, it should be remembered that the population of the United Kingdom, in 1810, was about 16,000,000 mouths, and in 1832 fully 25,000,000; thus in 1810 the consumption of sugar was 421 oz. per head, and in 1832 only 261 oz.! *i. e.* a falling off of 160 oz. of sugar per head per annum.

Sugar produced in different Countries in 1814 and in 1830.

SUGAR COUNTRIES.	1814.	1830.	Increase.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
British West India Islands	190,000	185,000	none
Mauritius	6,000	30,000	24,000
British East India Possessions	20,000	25,000	5,000
French Colonies	60,000	95,000	35,000
Dutch and Danish Colonies	35,000	30,000	none
Cuba	50,000	90,000	40,000
Brazils	30,000	70,000	40,000
America	10,000	38,000	28,000
Beet-root Sugar	none	6,000	6,000
Total Comparisons Tons	401,000	569,000	178,000

Here we observe an increased supply of 3,560,000 cwt.* while the production of our W. I. islands has woefully decreased, even of late years, as will be thus seen:—

Importation of Sugar into Great Britain.

WHENCE IMPORTED.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	Increase on two Latter Years.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
British Plantation, West Indies	203,403	195,230	184,222	190,790	none
Mauritius	18,570	14,580	24,266	25,100	16,238
Bengal	6,635	8,700	10,680	7,870	3,215
Siam, Java, &c.	1,175	1,600	4,000	3,870	5,095
Cuba	1,900	5,300	6,060	6,610	5,470
Brazil	4,940	4,680	4,760	20,960	16,100
West India Molasses, (bastards)	25,254	19,403	12,191	16,306	none
Total and Comparisons	261,877	249,493	246,179	271,506	46,118

* The total quantity of sugar imported into the European ports in 1830 and 1831, was 871,721 tons. The consumption of America in 1830 was estimated at 70,000 tons. In New Orleans the exports of sugar in 1827-8 were 60,000 casks; in 1830-1 they had increased to 90,000 casks. The exportation of sugar from Java in 1825 was 960 tons, in 1829 it amounted to 3,330 tons. The produce of sugar in Cuba was in 1829, 72,000 tons; and in 1830, 92,000 tons. The Brazils in 1830 exported 70,000 tons of sugar. Martinique and Guadaloupe produced of sugar in 1827, 62,800

I do not attribute this reduced importation to worn out West India soils. The planters find that improved husbandry, and the alternation of crops, are as conducive to fertility and renovation of the earth in the new world as in the old, but I attribute it to the enormous, and unjust, and impolitic taxation levied on sugar imported into England, and which the planters, notwithstanding the reduced price, have been unable to compete with.

Proportion of Taxation on the Price of West India Sugar for Thirty Years.

1792 to 1796, averaging price	55s. 1d.,	duty or tax,	15s.	per Cwt., i. e. 27¼ per Cent.
1797 .. 1798, ...	67s. 3d.,		17s. 6d.	 26
1799 .. 1800, ...	64s. 2¼d.,		18s. 2d.	 28
1801 .. 1802, ...	52s. 7d.,		20s.	 38
1803 .. 1823, ...	46s. 4d.,		27s.	 58¼
1824 .. 1826, ...	33s. 5d.,		27s.	 80½
Dec. 1829	23s. 3¾d.,		27s.	 110

Herein we witness the bane of our colonial policy. We have not only imposed enormous duties on the produce of our transmarine possessions, but, with the idea of keeping up a mercantile marine, we have, while almost shutting the W. Indies out from the home market, forbade their selling their surplus in those of Continental Europe or America; nay, not only from *selling*, but even from *buying food* and the necessaries of life, where the Colonists could readily obtain them in exchange for their sugar, rum, &c. What miserable policy! What short-sighted statesmanship! Better were it for the planters of Jamaica, &c. to cut the painter that holds them to a country which, like the dog in the manger, will neither consume what is within its reach, nor allow others to obtain that which is refused or neglected. At present the consumption of sugar in the United Kingdom (vide 1st vol. *History of the Colonies*, p. 219) is not more than 5 oz. a-week for each individual—a quantity which the youngest child would consume. How many millions of our starving countrymen

tons; in 1830, 70,000 ton. Bourbon Isle in the same years, 7,200 tons; and 18,000 tons. These statements show what abundance of sugar there is in the world.

scarcely ever taste sugar, though were it within their means (which it would be but for our destructive system of finance and impolitic restrictions on commerce) they would use, at the very least, three times the amount now imported.

We have been engaged in upholding a false system. When the British W. I. Colonies were first established they had a free trade to all parts of the world, and the result was the most rapid strides in prosperity ever known. Our exclusive system checked that prosperity — our taxation within the present century completed its ruin. Upwards of £100,000,000 sterling have been invested in the British sugar plantations in the W. Indies—loans of relief have been issued from the British Exchequer to a vast amount—and £20,000,000 sterling have lately been added to purchase slave emancipation;—All this money, and what is of far more worth, all the gallant blood spilt in defence of those possessions, will have been expended in vain by a perseverance in the present system. We must lower the duty on W. I. sugar from 24*s.* to 12*s.* and proportionally reduce the duties on E. I. sugars. We must allow the W. I. islands a free trade with North America and with Continental Europe on their own terms*—the Colonists must, in fact, be permitted to buy food at the cheapest rate where they can sell sugar at the dearest price. If this be not done the destruction of all the property embarked in the W. I. islands is inevitable, and those Colonies will remain like a drag chain round our necks, instead of being, as they would under the system recommended, a source of happiness and prosperity to the parent state.

* The following are the Free (so called I suppose on the principle *lucus a non lucendo*), Ports among the British colonies IN THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE. 'No goods shall be imported into, nor shall any goods, except the produce of the fisheries in British ships, be exported from any of the British Possessions in America by sea, from or to any place other than the United Kingdom, or some other of such possessions, except into or from the several ports in such possession, called 'Free Ports,' enumerated or described in the table following; (that is to say)—

Jamaica, Kingston, Savannah Le Mar, Montego Bay, Santa Lucia, Antonia, Saint Ann, Tahroun Maria, Morant Bay, Annotto Bay, Black

The diminishing production of sugar imported from the several W. I. islands is shewn in the table facing this chapter. The annual importation at the principal ports of Great Britain of Plantation sugar from 1823 to 1833 was*—

In Casks.	1833	1832	1831	1830	1829	1828	1827	1826	1825	1824	1823
London	131000	145000	155800	159000	162300	176000	148000	168700	146100	168200	159000
Liverpool ..	49000	45000	48000	42000	43700	45500	37500	41800	39500	46300	46350
Bristol, &c.	26000	27900	32000	30000	34000	35600	25200	31700	28300	31000	31800
Clyde	31500	30400	30200	29000	32400	31000	27800	26600	25900	25500	26300
Total ..	237500	248300	266000	260000	272400	288100	238500	268800	239800	266000	263450

For the years ending in January 1834 and 1833, of sugar there were *total importations*—in 1834, 4,732,749 cwts.; in 1833, 4,876,748;—of which the West India Colonies furnished in 1834, 3,648,026 cwts.; in 1833, 3,784,244. Total *consumption* in 1834, 4,075,762 cwts.; in 1833, 4,130,474 cwts.; of which the West Indies furnished, in 1834, 3,469,642 cwts.; in 1833, 3,824,263 cwts. The gross revenue was in 1834, £4,934,098.; in 1833, £5,354,437; of which the West India sugars paid in 1834, £4,167,268; in 1833, £4,595,377.

Before passing from this branch of my subject, I cannot help adverting to another grievous imposition under which

River, Rio Bueno, Port Morant. *Grenada*, Saint George. *Dominica*, Roseau. *Antigua*, Saint John's. *Trinidad*, San Josef. *Tobago*, Scarborough. *Tortola*, Road Harbour. *New Providence*, Nassau. *Crooked Islands* Pitt's Town. *Saint Vincent's*, Kingston. *Bermuda*, Port Saint George and Port Hamilton. *Bahamas*, any Port where there is a Custom House. *Barbadoes*, Bridgetown. *New Brunswick*, St. John's, St. Andrew's. *Nova Scotia*, Halifax, Picton. *Canada*, Quebec. *Newfoundland*, Saint John's. *Demerara*, George Town. *Berbice*, New Amsterdam. *Saint Lucia*, Castries. *Saint Kitts*, Basseterre. *Nevis*, Charles Town. *Montserrat*, Plymouth. *Cape Breton*, Sydney. *Prince Edward's Island*, Charlotte Town. *Anguilla*, Anguilla. And if any goods shall be imported into any port or place in any of the said possessions contrary hereto, such good shall be forfeited.'

* I have compiled this important comparative statement from various numbers of Myer's Liverpool Price Current.

the Colonists labour, by being virtually forbidden to refine* their own sugar on the spot where it is made, (the duty on importation into England being £8 8*s.* per cwt.) for the sake of benefitting a comparatively small body of refiners in England. If such a measure were now to be proposed for the first time, would it not most deservedly be scouted by the good sense of the country? Why, then should evil be persisted in. Instead of the West Indians petitioning for the prevention of foreign sugar being admitted into the home market for refining, let them strenuously petition to refine their own article on the spot where it is grown and manufactured.

Molasses. The remarks made in the foregoing pages have equal reference to molasses, or treacle, the annual importations of which now average upwards of 300,000 cwt. [vide page 424,] the duty on which, from British possessions, is 9*s.* per cwt., producing a net revenue of not more than £150,000 per annum; it would be desirable to reduce this duty to 5*s.* per cwt., and to permit the use of molasses in breweries, distilleries, &c.

Rum. The West Indians have pressed much for a reduction of duty on this article; on this point I do not agree with them: rum is not a necessary of life—it is quite cheap enough for any good purpose, perhaps too cheap for a bad use; nevertheless, though I would not augment the duty on its importation, I would not assuredly reduce it; to give the planters relief, they should be permitted to send their surplus to foreign markets. To dispose of it, in fact, freed from our baneful monopolizing restrictions. The following table shews the quantity of—

† In the report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on W. I. Affairs in 1832, the committee justly state that they 'are at a loss to trace to any sound principle the prohibition of refining sugar in the West Indies; they cannot justify the prohibition of manufacture in any part of the King's dominions, but least of all *the manufacture of their own produce by the cultivators;* and they recommend, without hesitation, that this restriction be removed.'

Rum (gallons) Imported into the United Kingdom from the British West India Colonies.*

Years.	Jamaica.	British Guyana.		Trinidad.	Tobago.	Grenada.	St. Vincents.	Barbadoes	St. Lucia.	Dominica.	Antigua.	St. Kitts.	Nevis.	Mont-Serrat.	Tortola.	Total.
		Demerara.	Berbice.													
1808	3,771,892	132,441		85,312	467,651	470,030	205,701	29,170	12,682	34,726	99,367	232,770	82,409	79,767	23,386	5,727,304
1809	3,470,250	353,374	20,355	208,677	525,327	642,309	243,462	19,774	21,632	56,993	143,223	343,075	52,477	51,132	16,852	6,168,912
1810	3,428,452	98,442	6,193	87,742	337,433	546,895	200,795	7,909	11,416	39,398	77,092	220,886	67,010	48,880	7,711	5,166,254
1811	4,604,772	222,612	1,866	95,123	335,622	545,236	205,392	46,689	6,570	54,406	210,962	196,040	70,136	46,848	6,383	6,648,657
1812	3,763,281	532,819	23,139	39,126	410,220	496,453	338,407	3,602	2,628	61,813	177,374	181,616	13,178	62,295	38,867	6,144,818
1813	4,047,882	1,041,665	16,420	194,377	493,425	614,421	422,184	10,560	4,035	65,149	179,782	312,604	137,163	108,060	77,040	6,713,767
1814	3,818,565	981,768	44,244	120,285	581,597	722,086	550,369	23,957	8,862	52,862	246,289	250,922	107,160	56,428	59,557	7,604,951
1815	4,145,321	794,804	25,275	58,070	444,700	579,905	273,658	8,513	607	57,005	84,399	130,187	74,430	57,377	7,419	6,741,570
1816	2,686,851	515,295	8,997	6,052	253,714	257,226	61,374	2,465	496	1,654	27,984	16,852	8,583	2,691	10,218	3,860,452
1817	3,717,895	992,961	14,298	28,980	328,682	552,466	398,085	2,319	457	25,646	88,711	86,538	5,301	20,365	23,010	6,285,734
1818	3,529,325	635,553	18,896	4,332	327,651	417,890	166,738	1,928		2,473	49,210	69,390	17,656	25,907	2,342	5,469,291
1819	3,660,918	981,138	28,190	63,743	442,478	497,695	313,450	1,051	3,359	2,537	129,678	149,228	16,577	34,857	3,261	6,328,160
1820	3,850,225	1,529,088	27,935	57,427	484,243	455,549	225,924	2,330	13,428	21,696	104,713	146,043	36,088	47,768	281	7,002,738
1821	4,451,828	1,297,764	63,536	20,651	402,486	371,138	250,646	742	4,487	24,523	65,445	91,498	34,220	27,651	1,696	7,108,301
1822	2,318,137	1,193,556	32,668	20,390	310,984	179,746	40,787	249	18	2,268	57,232	61,263	10,187	14,935	220	4,242,640
1823	2,951,110	941,195	74,221	8,586	309,829	301,866	80,439	351	4,807	14,310	28,242	42,944	16,584	42,943	16,158	4,833,585
1824	3,003,008	930,132	44,393	18,162	312,370	267,079	56,649	489	1,978	27,885	17,543	68,216	7,006	19,820	311	4,775,081
1825	2,250,943	778,889	21,243	2,956	388,680	294,945	66,534	1,277	3,589	14,570	30,491	31,505	5,197	23,075	103	3,936,997
1826	2,283,784	837,464	33,367	17,382	406,778	170,042	55,313	2,064	6,390	7,407	54,447	73,029	24,185	17,538	193	3,989,383
1827	2,437,274	1,192,399	110,469	20,068	283,941	277,497	233,052	439	18,659	9,748	19,831	105,107	16,586	36,205	103	4,667,378
1828	3,498,992	1,353,786	143,970	6,057	494,573	398,647	108,075	4,302	19,855	11,250	70,447	129,636	10,540	21,453	110	7,271,693
1829	3,516,651	1,682,625	201,362	15,821	370,733	394,289	275,378	1,554	38,113	31,853	110,434	176,807	45,971	39,815	206	6,901,607
1830	3,213,503	1,859,719	234,618	12,941	428,810	298,938	173,262	2,357	12,817	36,321	155,514	219,706	51,243	49,075		6,748,810
1831	3,505,727	2,319,892	218,389	62,047	498,717	328,471	160,211	20,730	11,923	63,007	159,241	256,982	147,750	40,629	48	7,793,714
1832	2,757,053	1,293,255	129,194	5,556	281,651	103,654	29,372	5,740	6,544	34,599	29,173	29,951	11,189	11,504	108	4,728,543
1833																
1834																
1835																

* The total quantity of rum imported into the United Kingdom was, for the years ending January: in 1833, 4,745,665 gal.; in 1834, 5,145,219 gal,: consumed in 1831, 3,537,817 gal.; 1834, 3,491,806. The gross revenue received, was in 1833, £1,592,228; in 1834, £1,571,058.

Rum Imported at the principal ports of Great Britain from 1823 to 1833.

In Puncheons.	1833	1832	1831	1830	1829	1828	1827	1826	1825	1824	1823
London	31000	27000	46400	39800	41700	39000	35000	29500	24000	25400	28100
Liverpool ..	10400	9100	16000	12000	11650	10700	8300	7550	5500	9600	10100
Bristol, &c.	2000	2000	4300	3600	3800	3000	3000	3700	2000	3100	4700
Clyde	1600	2400	3400	2900	4300	2750	3200	3000	2800	3600	4100
	45000	40500	70100	58300	61450	55450	49500	43750	34300	41700	47000

COFFEE.

The berry which furnishes this delightful refreshing beverage, was first publicly introduced into England in the middle of the 17th century, and soon after fell under the taxing claws of the Government; for, in 1660, a duty of 4*d.* per gallon was laid on all coffee made or sold; this duty was subsequently changed to a rated tax per lb. From 1689 to 1732, the tax was varied from 1*s.* to 2*s.* per lb.; it was then lowered to 1*s.* 6*d.* per lb. at which rate it remained for several years, producing 10,000*l.* revenue; the latter, however, as well as the consumption, fell off, from the high rate of taxation; and in 1793, the revenue from coffee was only £2,869. In 1784, the duty was reduced in Great Britain*

* The almost virtual exclusion of East India Coffee from the English market, and the high rate of taxation levied on the West India coffee is thus shewn for a series of years :—

	W. I. Coffee, per lb.	E. I. Coffee, per lb.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
From 1789 to 1794 . .	0 10	2 0
— 1795 to 1796 . .	1 5	2 6
— 1797 to 1798 . .	1 5	3 7
— 1799 to 1802 . .	1 5	2 7
— 1803 to 1807 . .	1 7	2 0
— 1808 to 1813 . .	0 7	0 10
— 1814 to 1818 . .	0 7½	0 11½
— 1819 to 1824 . .	1 0	1 6
— 1825 to 1832 . .	0 6	0 9
Average rate of duty for 44 years	1 0½	1 11½

In addition to the *tax* (I hate the word *duty*), thus levied on E. I. coffee, there was an *ad valorem* duty, varying from two and a half to four per cent. during the period between 1799 and 1813.

from *2s. 3d.* to *6d.* per lb. excise, and *4d.* per lb. customs, on British plantation coffee, while the duty levied on East India was *2s. 10d.* per lb. excise, and *4d.* per lb. customs. (What a shameful prohibition against East India coffee!) The consumption of coffee rose, on this reduction, annually, until, in 1791, it amounted in Great Britain to 1,047,276 lbs. the revenue on which augmented to £57,659. The Government of that day, not content with this increasing prosperity, raised the duty, in 1795, on British plantation, from *6d.* to *1s. 1d.* per lb, and on East India from *1s. 8d.* to *2s. 2d.* in addition to the *4d.* per lb. customs' duty levied on each sort; the entire duty, therefore, was, on British plantation, *1s. 5d.* and on East India *2s. 6d.* per lb.

The result of this fiscal exaction may be easily imagined; the consumption of coffee in Great Britain fell off from 1,054,588 lbs. in 1795, to 396,953 lbs. in 1796; and for eight succeeding years the consumption of coffee never rose beyond that of 1795!

In 1803, the excise duty on East India coffee was lowered from *2s. 2d.* to *1s. 6d.* and accordingly, in 1804, the consumption rose to upwards of 1,000,000 lbs. about equal to what it had been in 1791. From 1804 to 1808 the customs' duty was raised, and the consumption decreased so, that, in 1808, the quantity of coffee used did not exceed that of 1791. Juster views were now, however, adopted; for, in 1809, the excise duty was lowered from *1s. 1d.* to *3d.* per lb. and the customs' duty from *6d.* 7-8th to *4d.* per lb. on British Plantation, while on East India the excise was lowered from *1s. 6d.* to *6d,* and the customs from *6¾d.* and *£3 7s. 11d.* per cent. *ad valorem* to *4d.* per lb. In consequence of these beneficial reductions, let it be remembered, the consumption of coffee thus extraordinarily increased in one year—

Consumption.—1808, lbs. 1,069,691; 1809, lbs. 9,251,837.!

The revenue also increased; but the West India interest, jealous of the prospects of the East Indies sharing in the home-market supply, caused, in the very subsequent year, an additional duty of *£3 6s. 8d.* per cent. *ad valorem* to be levied

on East India coffee; the result was that the consumption fell off, in 1810, to 5,308,096 lbs. and for fifteen years, *i. e.*, until 1824, the consumption was not so great as in 1809! 1810, 6,092,800 lbs.; 1811, 7,571,200 lbs.; 1812, 8,265,600 lbs.; 1813,* 6,048,000 lbs.; 1814, 5,868,800 lbs.; 1815, 6,832,000 lbs.; 1816, 7,436,800 lbs.; 1817, 8,108,800 lbs.; 1818, 1,308,737 lbs.; 1819,† 7,790,783 lbs.; 1820, 7,103,409 lbs.; 1821, 7,593,001 lbs.; 1822, 7,669,351 lbs.; 1823, 845,920 lbs.; 1824, 8,262,943 lbs.

On the reduction of the duty in 1825, from 1*s.* to 6*d.* on the W. India, and from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 9*d.* on E. India coffee, the consumption thus rose in one year, 1824, 7,993,040 lbs.; 1825, 10,766,112 lbs.; and went on rising thus—1826, 12,724,139 lbs.; 1827, 14,974,378 lbs.; 1828, 16,522,423 lbs.; 1829, 18,476,180 lbs.; 1830, 20,728,000 lbs.; 1832, 22,952,000 lbs.

The present consumption, though large as compared with the past, is small in reference to the population, and in comparison with other countries;‡ for instance—Coffee consumed in Great Britain, 14 oz. per head; ditto, in the United States, 58, ditto.—Difference, 44.

This extraordinary increase in America over Great Britain is owing to reduced taxation. In Camberleng's able Report to Congress, 8th February, 1830, we find the duty on coffee had been then lowered to five cents. or 2½*d.* per lb. and it has since been further reduced to 2 cents. or 1*d.* per lb. The

* Tax raised to 7½*d.*

† Tax raised to 1*s.* per lb.; hence the falling off.

‡ The consumption of coffee in Great Britain is about 10,000 tons; France, 20,000 tons; in the Netherlands, 40,000 tons; Spain and Portugal, 10,000 tons; Germany and the Baltic, 32,000 tons; United States, 15,000 tons:—total consumption, *tons*, 127,000. Of this large quantity the British West Indies does not produce more than 30,000,000 lbs., or 13,392 tons; while the island of Java alone yields 20,000 tons; Cuba about 15,000; St. Domingo nearly 16,000 tons; the Dutch West India colonies, 5,000 tons; the French ditto and Bourbon, 8,000 tons; and the Brazils and Spanish Main, fully 32,000 tons. Our E. I. colonies are capable of yielding excellent coffee to an indefinite amount.

result of this wise policy will be thus seen: the consumption of coffee in the United states was on the average of three years in annual amount as follows:—

COFFEE CONSUMED IN THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Consumption. lbs.	Population.	Consumption per head. oz.
1790	3,836,891	4,627,025	13
1798	7,351,665	6,000,000	19
1812	10,107,380	8,430,267	19
1818	19,199,443	11,000,000	19
1825	22,357,721	12,246,943	21
1826	26,449,356	12,325,012	22
1827	31,895,217	12,461,821	40
1828	37,258,879	13,124,937	45
1831	44,000,000	14,866,601	47
1832	56,000,000	15,000,000	59

Let the advocates of taxation on colonial produce ponder on the foregoing table, and reflect on the evils which ensue from raising money on the necessities of the people, to descend only, as they affirm, ' in refreshing showers on the country!'

When the government tax on coffee in America was reduced 2½*d.* per lb. consumption rapidly increased; when it was yet further lowered to a 1*d.* per lb. it bounded forward yet faster; and now it is expected that only ½*d.* per lb. will be levied by government:—but happy (at least once happy) England has 6*d.* levied on her West India coffee, 9*d.* on her East India coffee, and 1*s.* 3*d.* per lb. on foreign coffee. Nor is this all—again we have unequal taxation staring us in the face, the *poor man* pays a tax to the state on the worst West India coffee which he consumes of 124 to 224 per cent.; the *rich man* drinks the finest Jamaica, and pays only a tax to government of 71 per cent. *not half the sum which the poor man is taxed!* Is this equity?

But let it not be said that it is easier to complain than to suggest a remedy. It has been shown in the article ' sugar;' how the poor man may be benefited, and the state revenue at the same time augmented—that is, by affording encouragement to a greater supply, and thus lessening the price de-

manded by the seller, which result would inevitably follow from competition. Ceylon is as valuable a colony to England as Jamaica, and yet its coffee is charged with duty in the home market to the extent of 260 per cent.; while the finest Jamaica coffee is only assessed from 70 to 80 per cent. One pays ninepence per pound to government, after a voyage of six months—the other sixpence, after a voyage of six weeks —Is this justice?

If the government tax on coffee were reduced and equalized, the consumption would readily be increased from 22,000,000 to 40,000,000 lbs. or indeed at the moderate estimate of 2 lbs. of coffee a year for each individual (which is less than the American consumption by 2 lbs.) to 50,000,000 lbs. weight; the revenue to the government at the following proposed rates of duty would then be:—

	Consumption.	Revenue.
West India coffee	lbs. 30,000,000	
Government tax of 3*d.* per lb. would produce . .		£375,000
East India colonial coffee	10,000,000	
Government tax of 3*d.* per lb. would produce . .		125,000
Brazil and other foreign coffee . . .	10,000,000	
Government tax of 6*d.* per lb. would produce . .		250,000
Consumption and revenue . . .	lbs. 50,000,000	£750,000*

Here we see that on the moderate calculation of 2 lbs. of coffee per annum for each individual (the consumption in America being nearly 4 lbs.) the colonial and general commerce of the nation would be materially increased, the revenue augmented, and above all, the comforts of the people extended; while there would be less necessity for Parliamentary Committees to enquire into drunkenness, for the morals, and consequently health, of the working classes, would be materially improved by the substitution of a wholesome and vivifying stimulant for the pernicious and demoralizing use of gin and other ardent spirits. The following return shews the quantity of—

* I am justified in proposing this fiscal change by reason of the in-

Coffee (lbs.) imported into the United Kingdom from the British West India Possessions.

Years.	Jamaica.	Demerara.	Berbice.	Dominica.	Trinidad.	St. Lucia.	Bahamas.	Other B. W. I. Cols.	Total.
1821	16,720,368	4,473,404	2,081,968	1,711,248	160,844	208,432	557,984	60,952	25,975,200
1822	18,837,616	7,394,128	2,801,456	1,156,096	268,028	172,704	243,488	56,448	30,929,964
1823	19,009,648	6,064,464	2,076,144	1,919,232	330,736	375,424	89,152	73,584	29,938,384
1824	24,862,656	5,368,160	1,965,488	2,076,144	113,456	202,608	158,704	212,567	34,959,783
1825	18,097,968	3,074,736	2,032,913	1,359,244	138,208	152,544	73,816	48,832	24,978,261
1826	17,801,223	4,371,222	805,951	1,385,002	187,300	114,384	359,594	31,123	25,165,799
1827	21,881,991	3,549,091	2,186,185	1,111,686	118,489	138,377	4,082	21,904	29,011,805
1828	21,800,027	3,822,194	1,793,677	1,769,093	54,437	138,102	147,818	74,616	29,599,964
1829	18,690,654	4,068,118	2,482,898	942,144	73,667	303,499	45,806	259,614	26,866,400
1830	19,753,715	3,447,426	2,816,909	1,016,641	54,502	113,517	227,069	172,762	27,602,541
1831	15,456,764	1,938,386	1,585,402	613,360	1,768	83,007	82,537	15,734	20,076,956
1832	19,405,933	1,200,791	2,291,497	1,350,401	91,532	84,512	31,036	218,220	24,673,922
1833									
1834									
1835									

The quantity of coffee imported from the British West India colonies was, for the year ending January 1833, lbs. 24,642,857; in 1834, lbs. 18,852,423. The quantity entered for *home consumption* from the British West India colonies was in 1833, lbs. 20,974,933, for 1834, lbs. 20,957,379. The revenue on which for those years was £524,921; £523,959. The *grand total* quantity of coffee entered for home consumption from all countries was in 1833, lbs. 22,965,532; in 1834, lbs. 22,760,523; the gross revenue on which was, in 1833, £599,030; in 1834, £591,625.

The relative importation for a series of years into the principal ports of Great Britain,—

creased consumption, which has invariably followed reduction of duty as before shewn; but that the reader may have, at one view, the effect of diminished taxation on an article that enters into the consumption of the bulk of the people, I give the following table of coffee consumed and tax thereon, shewing the effect of reduced duty:—

	Years inclusive.	W. I. Tax.	Consumption for that Period.	Yearly Average.
		s. d.	Tons. lbs.	lbs.
From 1791 to 1794	4	0 11	1,555 or 3,483,100	870,775
.. 1795 .. 1799	5	1 5	1,229 .. 2,741,700	548,340
.. 1800 .. 1804	5	1 6	1,814 .. 4,063,300	812,460
.. 1805 .. 1807	3	2 2	1,489 .. 3,337,200	1,112,400
.. 1808 .. 1812	5	0 7	16,020 .. 35,884,800	7,176,960
.. 1813 .. 1818	6	0 7¼	19,019 .. 42,603,137	7,100,523
.. 1819 .. 1824	6	1 0	20,887 .. 46,874,407	7,812,402
.. 1825 .. 1830	6	0 6	43,691 .. 98,183,481	16,363,916
.. 1831 . 1834	4	0 6		22,000,000

Coffee imported into the principal Ports of Great Britain, from 1824 to the end of 1833.

	In 1833.		In 1832.		In 1831.		In 1830.		In 1829.		In 1828.		In 1827.		In 1826.		In 1825.		In 1824.	
	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.	casks.	barrels & bags.
London, all Ports ..	11,000	128,000	19,000	166,200	17,000	147,000	24,600	94,000	23,000	93,500	26,000	81,500	24,790	123,400	27,800	183,500	37,000	93,400		
Liverpool	6,850	16,800	9,740	12,300	8,430	5,500	7,800	7,900	8,080	5,900	6,200	6,900	5,690	4,040	5,000	12,400	5,000	19,000		
Bristol, &c.	100	300	260	400	50	100	220	200	520	500	260	1,000	220	650	200	600	600	500		
Clyde	600	4,600	800	1,400	700	1,300	1,050	2,300	1,350	3,500	850	2,400	1,360	2,000	1,000	2,800	1,300	2,700		
Total..	18,550	149,700	29,800	180,200	26,170	153,900	33,670	103,700	32,950	103,700	33,320	91,800	31,330	130,100	34,000	199,300	44,700	130,600		

COCO, OR CACAO.

The nutritious and wholesome beverage prepared from the nuts of the cacao tree (vide Trinidad chapter) has only of late begun to attract much attention in England, where its consumption is far below what it is entitled to be, the average annual consumption per head for each individual being not much more than *five drachms weight!* The reason of this small demand has been owing to excessive as well as unequal taxation: in 1831, Trinidad and Grenada cocoa were worth in bond in the London market from 24*s.* to 65*s.* per cwt. while the tax was 56*s.* being nearly 100 per cent. on the finer qualities, and no less 230 *per cent.* upon those cocoas which were consumed by the poor!

The tax on cocoas having of late been reduced, the consumption as usual has increased, thus:—

COCOA ENTERED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION.

Years.	Bgs. & Brls.	Years.	Bgs. & Brls.
1828	2,700	1830	3,320
1829	2,980	1831	5,600
	Total 5,680		Total 8,920

In 1826 the quantity of cocoa delivered for consump-

tion in the United Kingdom was only 150 tons, in 1830 it rose to 200 tons, in 1832 it was as high as 500 tons, and in 1833 there were 566 tons retained for home consumption, the increase arising principally from the reduced duty on the article.

The latest returns made up at the Custom House are as follow:—Imported, 1833, 2,951,019 lbs.; 1833, 4,607,801 lbs. Home consumption, 1833, 1,150,193 lbs,; 1834, 1,268,217 lbs.

Cocoa Imported at London and Liverpool from 1825 to 1833.

Imported into London.	1833		1832		1831		1830		1829		1826		1825	
	Cks	Brls & Bags	Cks	Brls & Bags	Cks	Brls & Bags	Cks	Brls & Bags	Cks	Brls & Bags	Cks	Brls & Bags	Cks	Brls & Bags
From Trinidad	20	7900	..	1170	50	4850	30	2000	4	1795	37	545	240	2400
Brazil, &c.	..	17500	..	17200	..	13600	..	6600	23	12000	..	4105	..	2870
Other parts	130	2150	200	930	..	2300	10	1460	385	1630	363	1720	390	1710
Total ..	150	27550	200	19300	50	20750	40	10060	412	15325	400	6370	630	6980
Imported into Liverpool.														
Trinidad	..	3750	..	670	..	1145	15	820	..	272		520	3	1277
Brazil, &c.	..	200	..	100	..	65	15		..	122		4180		4797
Other parts	4	250	20	80	2	168	20		6			120	44	13
Total ..	4	4200	20	850	2	1378	50	820	6	394 —		4820	47	6087

We can *not* grow coco or cacao nuts in Great Britain—we *can* in our colonies;—and the revenue now received is trifling; it would be well, therefore, to abolish the duty on that grown in and imported from our colonies altogether, the Exchequer would lose nothing by such a step, for the consumption of sugar would be increased,—the colonial planter, the merchant, the shipowner, and impoverished artizan, would materially gain. Let us hope that state policy, if no higher feeling should prompt, will cause the total abolition of the tax on cocoa. It is the imperative duty of the statesman, as well as the moralist, to watch over the social habits of the people, and prevent by every possible means the habit of indulging in spirituous liquors, to which mankind are in general so much addicted. The temptation to this horrid vice of inebriety is wofully increased by fiscal duties on such articles as cocoa, coffee, tea, &c., and every man who desires to see his fellow creatures sober, industrious, and virtuous, (for these three are natural sequences) will aid me in endeavouring to get the taxes on the necessaries of life lightened and abolished, &c.

Prices in England (exclusive of duty) of West India and Spanish Main Produce.

	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	Fall from 1826	Rise from 1826
	£. s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	pr. ct.	pr ct.
Annetto, Flag . lb	0 2 4	0 2 3	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 0 8	0 0 10	0 0 7	0 0 6	78	
Brazilletto . . ton	10 3 4	7 3 4	6 3 4	6 3 4	6 17 0	6 17 0	6 17 0	13 17 0		23
Cochineal, Black . lb	1 0 0	0 18 0	0 13 6	0 12 0	0 11 5	0 9 0	0 8 4	0 8 0	57	
Cocoa, West India . —	3 0 0	2 16 0	2 8 0	2 0 0	1 13 0	. . .	1 15 0	. . .	41	
Grenada, fine red —	4 6 0	4 0 0	3 0 0	3 3 0	3 0 0	3 0 0	2 5 0	3 14 0	13	
Coffee, cwt.—										
Ord. Dom. and St. Lucia	3 2 0	2 12 0	2 7 0	1 19 0	1 17 0	1 12 0	4 1 0	3 10 0	—	12
Good and fine middling	4 15 0	4 8 0	3 18 0	. . .	. . .	2 18 0	4 11 0	4 2 0	13	
Jamaica ord. .	2 15 0	2 9 0	1 17 0	1 16 0	1 13 0	1 16 0	4 2 0	3 8 0	—	13
Good, fine, and middling	4 18 0	4 14 0	4 6 0	2 18 0	3 17 0	. . .	4 18 0	4 13 0	5	
Cotton, common, W. I. lb.	0 0 9½	0 0 8½	0 0 7	0 0 7	0 0 6½	0 0 7½	0 0 6½	0 0 7½	18	
Arrow Root . —	0 1 11	0 1 11	0 2 5	0 2 3	0 1 9	0 1 3	0 1 3½	0 1 3	34	
Cassia Fistula . cwt.		. . .	6 6 8	5 6 8	5 6 8	2 11 8	1 16 8	1 1 8	83	
Fustic . . . ton	10 17 0	9 4 6	10 15 6	10 5 6	8 15 6	9 4 6	7 16 6	9 0 6	17	
Sarsaparilla, Honduras . lb.	0 1 6	0 1 9	0 3 0	0 2 3	0 1 3	0 1 9	0 2 0	0 1 8	—	11
Vera Cruz . . —	. . .	. . .	0 2 0	. . .	0 0 9	0 0 6	0 0 8	0 0 8	66	
Tamarinds . . cwt.	3 1 4	3 1 4	2 11 4	4 1 4	4 1 4	3 19 4	4 1 4	3 16 4	—	24
Ginger, cwt.—										
Jamaica, fine scraped	14 8 6	7 8 6	7 8 6	9 8 6	7 13 6	9 8 6	9 8 6	14 2 6	2	
Barbadoes . .	6 18 6	2 11 6	2 2 6	1 16 6	1 8 6	1 18 6	2 3 6	3 13 6	47	
Hides, Salted . . lb.	0 0 7½	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 5½	0 0 5½	0 0 6	0 0 5½	0 0 6½	13	
Indigo, Caracco Flores —	0 13 0	0 11 6	0 11 0	0 9 6	0 6 6	0 6 6	0 6 6	0 6 0	53	
Copper and low ord. —	0 6 9	0 4 9	0 3 9	0 4 0	0 2 6	0 2 4	0 2 0	0 2 2	67	
Lignum vitæ . . ton.	14 8 8	9 10 0	9 10 0	6 10 0	5 10 0	5 5 0	5 16 0	6 0 0	58	
Logwood, Jamaica, picked —	7 5 0	7 0 0	6 10 0	7 0 0	6 5 0	6 10 0	6 5 0	6 3 0	15	
Molasses . . . —	1 2 0	1 1 0	0 18 0	0 14 0	0 13 0	0 13 0	0 14 0	1 1 0	4	
Nicaragua Wood, ton.—										
Large and Solid .	25 5 0	21 5 0	15 5 0	13 5 0	13 5 0	14 5 0	15 15 0	18 0 0	28	
Small . .	17 5 0	12 5 0	9 5 0	7 5 0	8 5 0	7 15 0	12 5 0	14 15 0	14	
Pimento . . .	0 0 9½	0 0 10	0 0 9	0 0 8½	0 0 6	0 0 5	0 0 6	0 0 5½	46	
Rum, per gallon (per Sykes's Hydrometer—										
Jamaica 12 to 14 / Ditto 15 to 18	0 2 10	0 3 1	0 3 5	0 3 4	0 2 3	0 2 2	0 2 0	0 2 3	20	
Ditto 28 to 30 .	0 3 6	0 3 10	0 4 6	0 4 2	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 2 4	0 2 10	19	
Strongest Jamaica cwt.	0 3 8	0 4 3	0 4 9	0 4 6	0 3 8	0 3 1	0 3 2	0 2 4	9	
Demerara . . —	0 3 0	0 3 8	0 3 9	0 4 0	0 3 0	0 2 6	0 2 1	0 2 9	8	
Tobacco, St. Domingo Leaf —	0 2 6	0 0 10	0 0 7½	0 0 7½	0 0 6½	0 0 8½	0 0 8½	0 1 0	60	
Sugar, B. P. Muscovado—										
Jamaica, fine . —	2 3 0	2 5 0	2 3 0	2 4 0	2 0 0	1 15 0	1 12 0	1 15 0	27	
Good Brown . —	1 19 0	1 12 0	1 15 0	1 10 0	1 4 0	1 4 0	1 3 0	1 8 6	26	
Havannah, fine white —	2 10 0	2 5 0	2 9 0	2 10 0	2 9 0	1 18 0	1 18 0	1 15 0	30	
Ditto yellow —	1 16 0	1 16 0	1 17 0	1 18 0	1 9 0	1 5 0	1 6 0	1 6 0	27	

It will be observed from the foregoing, that the prices of W. I. produce have fallen rapidly of late years: the reduction will go on until a large quantity of land be thrown out of cultivation, when general poverty will ensue. Then will arise a servile war between the negroes and the owners of the soil,—the former will lay their sufferings at the door of the latter, and vice versa; mutual recrimination follows, and and the result may easily be foreseeen—each British West India possesion will become a St. Domingo or a desert—but not without a great sacrifice of life,* and the almost incalcu-

* The past system in the West Indies has necessitated the keeping up of an immense military force, even in peace time: at this moment there are from 8,500 to 9,000 regular troops in the different British possessions, Jamaica alone is head quarters for six regiments, Guyana for two, Trinidad one European and one West India (a black regiment), Barbadoes one, St. Vincent's one, Grenada one, St. Lucia one, Bahamas (the second West India regiment, blacks), Antigua one, and one at Bermuda. To

lable wealth expended in bringing those islands to their present state of refinement will be irrecoverably lost. Is this a state of things for a British Statesman or a Philanthropist to contemplate calmly even the possibility of?

I fear the grant of £20,000,000 has produced a state of apathy highly injurious to the W. I. interests; several influential persons think that by that act enough has been done to preserve the W. Indies,* while the mortgagees are supine as to the future in rejoicing over their present gain.

Although a firm believer in the wise ordinations of Providence, I do not think we are justified in leaving every thing to apparent chance or destiny; we are bound to act according to the best of our judgments, and commit the result to superior wisdom; therefore do I contend we ought to take immediate steps for the future benefit of the W. I. possessions; the duty on their sugar and molasses, coffee, and tobacco, when imported into England must be reduced, and on all articles which have not produced each a £1,000. per an. to the Exchequer during the the last ten years, or which have not been previously imported, the duty should be totally

admit of reliefs, at least 9,000 men more are required; and taking casualties into consideration, we may calculate that the W. I. colonies employ 20,000 men out of the whole British army, or require that number of men to be kept up. Under the system of free trade, which I propose the necessity for the mother country to maintain, this force would cease, or if it were deemed advisable to retain troops in the islands, the West Indies (as the East Indies now do), would be obliged and indeed be enabled to defray the whole expenses of the same.

* The $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duties which are levied on the produce of Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Kitts, Montserrat, Tortola, &c. ought, long ago, to have been repealed; that their imposition, up to this moment, is not owing to His Gracious Majesty is evident from the following passage in the Royal Speech, in 1830. 'I place, without reserve, at your disposal my interests in the Hereditary Revenues, and in those funds which may be derived from any droits of the Crown or Admiralty, from the *West India duties*, or from any casual revenues either in my foreign possessions, or in the United Kingdom.'—*Speech of William IV. to his first Parliament, Nov.* 2, 1830.

abolished, or at least (after the wise example of Cromwell) not levied for the next ten years.*

The following are among the articles which should be admitted into England, duty free, from the British W. Indies: cocoa, or chocolate, cotton, vinegar, dates, oil of pimento, blossoms of pimento, leather, logwood, brazilletto, starch, tamarinds, balsams, baskets, plantains, dried or preserved, hides, lime juice, ebony, lignum vitæ, nicaragua wood, mahogany, preserved ginger, lancewood spars, pickled peppers, succades, preserved fruits and pickles of every kind; honey, wax, arrow root, tapioca, cocoa nuts and castor oils,† turmeric and various dyes. (Liqueurs at the same rate as spirits, and Segars and snuff as tobacco;) oranges, lemons, limes and citrons, cordage, hemp, pepper extracts, palmetto thatch for hats, Guinea and Indian corn, rice, various drugs, such as senna, aloes, jalap, barks, &c. &c. &c.

Our next step should be permission for the colonists to open a trade on their own terms, *fettered by no restrictions* with Continental Europe or America, for the disposal of that surplus produce which we do not require, and that they may obtain at the lowest cost the necessaries of life; (that this would not injure our North American Colonies I will demonstrate in my next volume.)

The Parliamentary Select Committee of 1832 report that—'In its competition with foreign countries, the colonial produce of Great Britain is also subjected to disadvantages, occasioned by the commercial and maritime policy of the mother country. Partial attempts, counteracted in a degree by circumstances, have been made of late years to relieve the colo-

* For a tariff of articles, with the discriminating duties levied on West India, East India, and foreign articles, see first volume of the *History of the British Colonies*. Page 221.

† An acre of the worst ground, viz. the sides of gullies, &c. if planted with the castor oil nut tree (*ricinus*), yields nuts capable of giving 1,000 gallons of oil, which, at 3*s*. per gallon, would return £150 per acre, with little or no trouble in the cultivation.

nies from the effects of restrictive laws. They have been permitted to carry on a direct intercourse with those countries of Europe and America, which by complying with the terms prescribed, have entitled themselves to such intercourse; but the importation of goods from these foreign countries has been *clogged by discriminating duties, and there has been in fact scarcely any intercourse with those countries.* In respect of the United States of America, the most important either for export or import, the intercourse has been from time to time suspended, renewed and modified; and has finally been permitted under a system of protection for the North American colonies, which, together with the uncertainty produced by frequent changes, renders it as yet doubtful, whether, during the existence of that protection, any benefit will be derived by the West India Colonies from its renewal. And in regard to some very material articles of supply, *a strict monopoly is still maintained in favour of the mother country, or of her North American possessions.*' The *direct* effect of these commercial restrictions has been computed by the W. I. merchants at the annual charge of no less than £1,392,353. sterling; thus abstracting from the pocket of the planter in the article of sugar alone 5*s*. on every cwt. of sugar he makes. But grievous as this imposition is, the *indirect* effect of the commercial monopoly against the W. I merchant and planter is far more ruinous, for it has been one of the main causes of destruction to the colonies—it has been the inward canker, undermining the very existence of West India agriculture, trade, and property.

Thirdly, the emigration of Europeans or whites to the West Indies should be encouraged by every possible means; the millions of acres of fertile territory in Crown lands now lying waste, should be granted at a nominal quit rent to any person of industry and character for the purpose of colonization; and I refer to the description of each possession in the foregoing pages for proof of the capability of the soil and delightfulness of the climate as regards European settlement. The beneficial effects of an extensive location of whites in the

West Indies would not only be felt in commercial undertakings but also in the example which would be set to stimulate the negro and coloured race * to greater mental activity and bodily energy than under the present change they might be disposed to adopt.†

* The negro population of the West Indies are of different nations in Africa; some termed Congo, others Obbe, Coromantee, Papaw, Mandingo, Chamba, &c. all varying in disposition, intellect, and habits; while their creole descendants possess in common the mingled disposition of their ancestors, but in general are more acute and quicker of apprehension than the pure African. The coloured inhabitants have several denominations, thus—*mulattoes* are sprung from white and black parents, *samboes* from black and mulattoes, *quadroons* from white and ditto, *mestees* from white and quadroons. Below the latter, the distinction of colour is hardly perceptible. Between the castes an endless variety of nondescript shades exist, descending from deep jet to olive.

† The following sound views on this subject are thus set forth in the *Antigua Herald, Barbadoes Mercury*, and *Liverpool Standard*, by various correspondents:—

'Let us imagine the probable effect of the introduction of ten white families of our civilized peasantry, consisting, say of five persons each—into a community of 300 blacks. Let us suppose that such only be sent as have habits of morality and industry previously formed, and that comfortable cottages are prepared for them, moderate labour furnished to them, and remuneration in return—equal to the supply not only of the necessaries and comforts, but luxuries of life—let us look at, say thirty of these fifty persons, attending to their agricultural labour with alacrity during the hours devoted to work—and returning to their white washed cottages and happy families in the evening; there and in their own immediate circle enjoying themselves, as the labourers of England do, when the toils of the day have ceased. Man, all over the world, is an imitative animal. The cleanly cottages—the small but neat gardens before the doors of the whites, would first attract notice; then, the decent clothing, the moral conduct of English families as compared with negroes, would in time command attention.

'Then the unwearied industry, the thought of providing for the future support of themselves and families, which their habits would exhibit, would be observed; and, in the course of time, is it unreasonable to hope, imitated? The desire to be equal to them would be created, and the gratification of this desire could only be accomplished by industry. The negroes on this estate were obliged to work in the field like themselves, and that exactly the same means would be open to them to reach the same end at the expiration of their apprenticeship.

'The machinery of life would thus be daily placed before their eyes, in the operations of which, by and by, they are to take their part. This chiefly (but not only) is the education which I would give them.

'There are upwards of 300,000 negroes in Jamaica alone. Let me ask the philanthropist to picture to himself the great moral effect likely to be produced in the course of a very few years on such a number of our fellow-creatures by the plan which I propose. I now come to show, secondly, 'the benefits to the emigrants.'

'There is not a berry of coffee or pimento shipped from the island, the labour attending which cannot be done by white European men, women, and children. The labour to be performed is like the gathering of goose-berries, (saus epines,) then the coffee has to be pulped, dried upon the barbicines, put into bags, and is carried to the backs of mules and asses. In

Two other measures deserve attention—1st. the *Monetary System* in the West Indies—and *2nd.* the principles on which

short, I fearlessly assert that one-third of the labour performed by the 300,000 negroes in Jamaica, can be done better by the white Europeans, and without injury to their health.

From an eminent medical practitioner, and an extensive proprietor, Kingston, Jamaica:—

'You would be conferring a great benefit both upon us and your poor fellow-countrymen were you to send out to us a number of them as free labourers. I would instantly place some hundreds of them in the mountains beyond the line of fever, where there would be abundance of occupation and better pay than they receive in their own country. Their food would be yams, (like and equal to any potatoes,) plantains, cocoa, salt fish; their own hogs and poultry, and sometimes fresh and salted beef and pork; houses, gardens, and clothing, besides a sum in money, weekly,' &c. &c.

The following is from a German planter, resident in St. David's, Jamaica.

'Wishing now, as well as yourself, to forward the welfare of and secure the property in the island, I am ready to take twenty free labourers, males and females with their children, but excluding old people, under the following conditions:—For the first year I could pay to each able person £8 Jamaica currency, maintaining them for nine months in the following articles, viz. twelve yards of dack, six yards of pennistone, a coarse hat, one pair of shoes, one iron pot sufficient for two people, and one frying pan, giving them for food a weekly allowance of 50 lb. of yams or cocoa, or 70 full grown plantains, 6 lb. salted fish, and coffee, and half a pound of sugar, and one quart of rum. To enable them to maintain themselves after the first nine months, I agree to assign them on their arrival two acres of virgin land for each labourer for cultivation. It requires no remark that I would provide for them good commodious habitations, and on finding them faithful and industrious, improve their wages;—Infant children I would maintain until their parents were able to do it themselves, and to those that could be in any way useful to the property I would give clothing. Medicines and medical attendance I could keep for these emigrants the first year only, leaving it to them to procure these things afterwards.

'But, doubtless, the industrious emigrant would look forward to something beyond being a mere labourer, if not for himself for his children. And where, let me ask, is there a better field for industry and perseverance? Almost every description of climate that is to be found in Europe is to be met with in Jamaica. In short, the cold, dismal, cloudy, wet days of this country are there unknown, and a healthier race does not exist than the inhabitants of the mountains.

'Hundreds of thousands of acres of rich and fertile lands in the parishes of St. James, St. David's, St. George, &c. &c. remain still in a state of nature, and to this hour uncultivated; valuable copper and other mines unexplored, and whole forests of rich and rare timbers, uncut, in consequence of the want of roads, and difficulty of conveying it to the sea coast. Let then, the tide of emigration flow thither:—let British enterprise, British industry, British capital, find a safe home there, and then, and then only, can the 'resources of that fine island be developed.'

According to some letters which I have seen, Suffolk husbandmen with their ploughs and cattle have been already located on several West India estates, and the result has been happiness to themselves and advantage to their employers.

'Landed property, writes a gentleman from Jamaica, would be of little value in England without labourers to till the soil; the same observation applies to Jamaica, the owners of the soil there are apprehensive that the blacks will not work, and they want from this country whites that will, in order to make their freeholds valuable.

'It is chiefly with respect to the low lands that this apprehension exists. It is not, I hope, presumptuous, to suppose that the Almighty has created, in his all-wise providence, not only different climates in the world, but human beings to inhabit and work in them, without injury to themselves respectively. I would not place a black man to work in the open air in Russia, or even in England, during the depth of winter, nor would I a white man to dig cane holes in the low lands of Jamaica; but I would, by my plan, endeavour to supersede the necessity of any black labourers in the mountains, and by having 50 to 60,000 whites there, bring down say

the £20,000,000 Compensation Fund is to be disbursed;—as regards the *first*, the reader will have perceived the various

100,000 blacks to the low lands. This would benefit the planters without injury to the negroes; to the former it would give a greater quantity of labourers, consequently a greater competition in the market, and a greater certainty of getting off his crops; to the latter, it would make the necessity of working greater, consequently, less fear of their relapsing into barbarism.

'With respect to the benefit to the mother country from white emigration to the West Indies.

'You cannot benefit any of England's colonies without the largest portion of such benefit flowing back to England.

'Let us then suppose the industry of fifty or one hundred thousand persons transferred from England, in which their utmost exertions, early and late, can scarcely furnish the mere necessaries of life, to one where two thirds the toil will bring three-fold the return.

'How will this additional return be spent? It will reach England every fraction of it; all their wants are English; and an additional impetus will be given to English manufactures and to British shipping. Let us suppose that emigrants, or emigrants' children make a fortune—where will it be spent?—In England, to be sure.'

'Very exaggerated views are entertained in this country relative to the difficulty and danger of agricultural labour in tropical climates. There are several of the West India islands in which, with ordinary care and prudence, illness is very rare among the white inhabitants—where the heat, on an average of six working hours in the day, is but little greater than it is during the months of July in England, and where there are immense tracts of fertile land uncultivated. (Vide Jamaica, Guyana, Trinidad, Dominica, &c.)

'In the Islands of St. Vincent's and Grenada there are many estates which cannot continue the extent of sugar-cane land formerly in cultivation without additional labourers, and the proprietors would be very glad to select such from among industrious, sober and respectable Englishmen.

'The sugar-cane cultivation, however, is not the only employment in which European labourers might be engaged with advantage to themselves and the proprietors.

'There is in the Islands before mentioned, a great extent of fertile land, capable of producing the finest vegetables, arrow root, indigo, coffee, cocoa, &c., which might be brought into productive cultivation. Indeed there is probably no part of the world where skilful and industrious persons might find more useful and profitable employment than in these Islands, which produce every thing that can be found in a tropical climate, and where many of the productions of a temperate one could, by care and cultivation, be much improved. By encouraging the growth of various articles of consumption, which, from want of skill and labour, are now necessarily procured from abroad at high prices, these colonies would be rendered more independant of foreign support.

'It is considered that, in addition to the advantages both to the proprietors of estates and the English labourers by this plan of emigration, the Islands would be benefited by having their local militia strengthened, and a greater security offered them against local revolt or foreign enemy.

'The example of the industrious habits of the emigrants would infuse a new spirit and feeling throughout the labouring class of negroes; agricultural labour would no longer be considered (as it now is in the West Indies) a degrading employment; the system of working for wages would be more generally understood; the external observance of those ties which ought to govern moral and social life would be rendered more probable; and such a change would be effected in the habits and dispositions of the negroes, as would qualify them to derive the full advantage designed for them by emancipation.

'The obstacle which has hitherto proved the most formidable to the employment of European labourers in the West Indies is intemperance.—From this cause far more fatal consequences are to be apprehended than from the climate; and the individuals who intend making proposals to the English peasantry to emigrate, will require that all they employ should be bound by a heavy penalty not to taste ardent spirits.

'The wages which estates would pay to labourers of this description, may be stated generally

currencies, in the different islands, and may naturally infer the impediment thus offered to commercial intercourse. This is a great evil—but a still greater evil is the state of the exchanges between England and the West Indies, which has caused the constant transmission of any metallic currency, that may be poured into the colonies, to the Mother Country, thus affecting the body politic in a manner similar to that which a daily or weekly abstraction of blood from the body corporate would have. To remedy these great evils, it is proposed (and I hope Government will give it every aid), to form a West India Bank, with a capital of £1,000,000 Sterling, the head-quarters of which shall be in England, and the branches thereof divided among the colonies; such a measure would equalize or regulate the exchanges, would promote commercial intercourse, between each island, and facilitate the operations of the planter, by affording him that accommodation which the country bankers of England give to the farmers and merchants. By drawing bills on England at 2 or 2½ per cent., the irresistible temptation to the transmission of the colonial currency to England, would be prevented; and by giving an expansible circulating medium as the representative of value to the colonists, their wellbeing would be materially promoted. Coupled with this banking system should be the calling in of all the debased colonial small coin, and the substitution of a sterling currency of shillings, sixpences, and threepences, all in silver, the negroes will not, if possible, touch copper coin. I have no doubt that this measure would prove of infinite value to the W. I. colonies and parent state.

With reference to the *2nd.* question, on which the public mind is much agitated:—The principles on which the sum of

at the rate of £8 sterling per man, £6 per woman, and £4 per boy above ten years of age, annually, with a house and provision grounds rent free, as well as a day per week, exclusive of Sunday for cultivating their grounds. This would enable them to raise sufficient food for their support, and somewhat to sell besides. A labouring family, consisting of father, mother, and three children, (two above ten years of age,) might earn as wages £22 sterling per annum, have their house and provision grounds rent free, live on the produce of the latter, and sell the surplus provisions, which, if they were industrious, would yield them about £20 sterling in addition.' I earnestly hope instant steps will be taken to carry the project of emigration into full effect; it is now being partially adopted in St. Kitts with complete success.

£20,000,000 allocated by the Legislature for the reimbursement of loss owing to the emancipation of slaves, may I believe, be considered settled as regards the questions of *ad valorem* or *per capita;* it seems to be now acknowledged that the sworn or arbitrated value of a slave, according to his current market price, is the fairest principle for awarding compensation. In order to determine the amount of compensation, accurate and complete returns from every plantation in the slave colonies are to be sent in by the 1st August, or within three months from that date. These returns are to be transmitted to England, and as soon as they have all arrived, the process of awarding the compensation-monies will commence, unless where counter claims may be sent in from mortgagees, &c. Although the mortgagees have an undoubted claim on the property, I think measures should be taken to secure a portion of the compensation-money to the planter, and not allow the creditor to grasp all, thus leaving the former in no condition to proceed with the culture of the estate; if the mortgagee were secured the interest of his money for five or seven years, binding him down at the same time not to foreclose the deed, the planter would have time to raise his head above water, and struggle through past difficulties; or if this be not acceeded to, the mortgagee should have the option of entering into a fair compromise for his claims, say, one half or two-thirds of his dues being paid down in order to give up any farther lien on the planter. If some step of this kind be not taken, the half of the planters will be utterly ruined, and land, which under the present system has little value according to its geographical extent, will lose the chance it now has of possessing intrinsic worth *per se.* By the planter having his land unincumbered, and some ready money in his pocket, he will be enabled to commence the *Metayer System**, as now

* The introduction of the *Metayer* System of the East Indies (see First Volume), into the British West India colonies ought to be adopted as soon as possible; by this means industrious, well-disposed, and intelligent coloured people will stimulate their less active bretheren, and set a good example.

practised in British India, and in Italy, with advantage to himself, to the numerous small farmers or planters which will be created, and with benefit to the parent state. I urge these points strenuously, because the British nation having munificently granted £20,000,000 compensation, have a right to see it beneficially distributed, and not squandered for the sole use of Jews and money brokers.

The planters have already made great pecuniary sacrifices for the moral and religious instruction of their dark brethren, to enable them to continue their praiseworthy efforts, the measures I have pointed out should be adopted without delay; it is no longer consistent with justice or sound policy to continue to the West Indies a monopoly of the supply of the home market; other tropical colonies demand our attention, and have a right to insist on equitable treatment from the mother country; besides, we cripple our own power—and resources and commerce by the present exclusive protection to West India sugar, coffee, and rum, —we impoverish a dense population at home, and (as the experience of the past proves) confer no benefit on the colonial agriculturists. Let me implore all who value the happiness of their fellow subjects in every clime to aid in abolishing the wretched policy of pitting one interest against another—the *West* Indian against the *East* Indian; the Canadian against the Australian; the European against the African;—it is indeed imperatively necessary that such miserable legislation should cease;—England derives no advantage from it, on the contrary, she materially suffers in her revenue—in her internal and maritime commerce—as well as by depriving herself of free outlets to every part of the globe for her unemployed population and surplus manufactures. I advocate nothing Utopian; in the preparation of this Work I have been necessitated to look into the early history of the colonies and the mother country—and I invariably found that it was owing to commercial freedom that the British West India Islands became peopled, cultivated, and enriched;* whenever restrictions were

* See Appendix for a view of the advantages resulting to the Danish

placed on their trade with America, Holland, France, &c. they immediately began to decline in prosperity, and by a singular coincidence the mischiefs inflicted by the cupidity of man were frequently followed by the terrific visitations of the elements. What with the curse of slavery, the blighting effects of hurricanes, and the far more destructive influence of commercial jealousy the wonder is how the West India colonies have maintained themselves during the last thirty years; nothing but the unconquerable energy of Britons could have surmounted the ruinous prospects and destruction of property which has been annually going on, and which will progress in an accelerated ratio unless the islands be permitted to renew their commercial intercourse with Europe and America, totally unfettered by any legal restrictions from the mother country. Give, I repeat, the British West Indies that unlimited mercantile freedom, for which their geographical position, fertile soil, and fine harbours so eminently qualify them, and neither the mother country, nor the colonies, have any thing to fear for the future;—Deny it them much longer and it were far better that the surrounding ocean overwhelmed and sunk them in its fathomless abyss, rather than that they should continue to drag on an anxious and paralyzed existence fraught with misery and ruin to all engaged in those once prosperous but still highly important and beautiful Isles of the West.

island of St. Thomas, by making it a *Free Port*, and the necessity of making Tortola and Dominica (at least) also free ports; not with the present mockery of privileges, clogged and rendered in fact inutile by all the forms and ceremonies of Official Authorities, Custom Houses, &c. our, so called West India free ports, have been a subject of merriment for the Americans, of ridicule for the French, satisfaction for the Danes, and of wonder to all the European powers. Let our free ports in the West Indies be in reality as free as the air that blows around them, and white settlers, with small capitals, will be attracted, who will soon find the channels of a beneficial intercourse with continental Europe and America, and with the valuable islands of Porto Rico, St. Domingo, and Cuba.

APPENDIX

TO THE

SECOND VOLUME

OF THE

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

[OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS.]

A.

Total Amount of the TRADE between the UNITED KINGDOM and the BRITISH WEST INDIA COLONIES since 1814.

YEARS.	OFFICIAL VALUE.				Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures Exported to the British W. Indies.
		EXPORTS TO THE BRITISH W. INDIES.			
	Imports from the British W. Indies.	British and Irish Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Merchandize.	TOTAL of EXPORTS.	
	£	£	£	£	£
1814	9,022,309	6,282,226	339,912	6,622,138	7,019,938
1815	8,903,260	6,742,451	453,630	7,196,081	7,218,057
1816	7,847,895	4,584,509	268,719	4,853,228	4,537,056
1817	8,326,926	6,632,708	382,883	7,015,591	5,890,199
1818	8,608,790	5,717,216	272,491	5,989,707	6,021,627
1819	8,188,539	4,395,215	297,199	4,692,414	4,841,253
1820	8,353,706	4,246,783	314,567	4,561,350	4,197,761
1821	8,367,477	4,940,609	370,738	5,311,347	4,320,581
1822	8,019,765	4,127,052	243,126	4,370,178	3,439,818
1823	8,425,276	4,621 589	285,247	4,906,836	3,676,780
1824	9,065,546	4,843'556	324,375	5,167,931	3,827,489
1825	7,932,829	4,702,249	295,021	4,997,270	3,866,834
1826	8,420,454	3,792,453	255,241	4,047,694	3,199,265
1827	8,380,833	4,685,789	331,586	5,017,375	3,683,222
1828	9,496,950	4,134,744	326,298	4,461,042	3,289,704
1829	9,087,923	5,162,197	359,059	5,521,256	3,612,085
1830	8,599,100	3,749,799	290,878	4,040,677	2,838,448
1831*					
1832					
1833					

* I leave several blank years to be filled in according as returns are made up by government, for future reference to a standard work like the '*History of the British Colonies,*' there will be thus more facility in noting down from year to year the data as they appear before Parliament.

An Account of the Imports, Exports, and Home Consumption of Sugar, inclusive, with the Annual Average Prices and Rates of Duty for

Years.	IMPORTS. British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantation.	Total of Imports.
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
1814	3,581,516	Considered as East India Sugar in these Years.	49,849	581,421	4,212,786
1815	3,642,807		125,639	365,889	4,134,335
1816	3,560,317		127,052	192,780	3,880,149
1817	3,679,352		125,893	105,916	3,911,161
1818	3,775,379		162,395	138,032	4,075,806
1819	3,907,151		205,527	85,837	4,198,515
1820	3,769,458		277,228	162,990	4,209,676
1821	3,906,967		269,162	197,037	4,373,166
1822	3,436,061		226,371	112,954	3,774,386
1823	3,773,598		219,580	208,598	4,201,706
1824	3,935,052		271,848	205,750	4,412,650
1825	3,501,281	93,723	150,347	162,784	3,908,135
1826	4,002,426	186,782	164,822	65,065	4,419,095
1827	3,550,918	204,344	175,846	178,910	4,110,018
1828	4,313,430	361,325	156,266	186,999	4,968,020
1829	4,152,815	297,958	206,052	199,568	4,856,393
1830	3,913,268	485,710	293,769	223,257	4,916,004
1831	4,103,746	517,553	237,416	507,547	5,366,262
1832					
1833					

Years.	REVENUE COLLECTED UPON SUGAR. GROSS RECEIPT OF DUTIES. . . British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantation, (including Sugar of Martinique and Guadaloupe, admitted for Home Consumption, under Act 53 Geo. 3. c. 62.)	Total of Gross Receipt.	PAYMENTS out of Gross Receipt. Drawback and Bounty allowed on Exportation to Foreign Parts, and Repayments on Over Entries, &c.	Net Produce of Duties.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1814	4,577,956	Considered as East India Sugar in these Years.	24,299	353,229	4,955,484	1,187,960	3,767,524
1815	4,740,781		73,999	65,579	4,880,359	1,426,926	3,454,333
1816	4,921,034		64,913	79,349	5,065,296	1,453,103	3,612,193
1817	5,966,845		50,612	8,034	6,025,191	1,591,265	4,433,926
1818	4,313,581		50,114	2,118	4,365,813	1,614,766	2,751,167
1819	4,984,878		192,014	924	5,177,816	1,181,273	3,996,543
1820	5,288,926		156,968	1,011	5,446,905	1,521,518	3,925,387
1821	5,352,130		222,438	1,075	5,575,643	1,386,695	4,188,958
1822	4,611,730		254,335	1,117	4,867,182	806,738	4,060,444
1823	5,135,409		190,783	750	5,326,942	919,532	4,407,410
1824	5,207,132		282,537	210	5,489,879	847,975	4,641,904
1825	4,651,525	106,205	198,322	99	4,956,151	779,496	4,176,655
1826	5,273,648	150,356	265,037	85	5,689,126	738,128	4,950,998
1827	5,059,208	230,005	172,406	30,251	5,491,870	841,678	4,650,192
1828	5,415,715	326,448	180,055	2,658	5,924,876	922,579	5,002,297
1829	5,340,258	394,782	223,002	8,745	5,896,787	1,000,515	4,896,272
1830	5,226,966	558,207	230,185	47,964	6,063,322	1,295,980	4,767,342
1831	4,936,592	547,855	189,609	104,358	5,778,414	1,127,824	4,650,590
1832							
1833							

and of the Revenue collected thereon, in each Year from 1814 to 1831 the same period; stated for the United Kingdom.

EXPORTS.							Consumption.
RAW SUGAR.					BRITISH Refined Sugar, (reduced to its equivalent Quantity of Raw Sugar.)	Total Export of Sugar, Raw and Refined.	Quantity retained for Actual Consumption in the United Kingdom.
British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantation.	Total of Raw Sugar.			
Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
430,817	Considered as East India Sugar in these Years.	41,083	459,990	931,890	897,347	1,829,237	2,324,051 including Sugar used in Distilleries.
385,761		67,665	311,378	764,804	994,025	1,758,829	2,211,299
234,996		101,581	190,190	526,767	953,314	1,480,081	2,529,931
142,571		95,218	132,937	370,726	1,141,724	1,512,450	3,298,941
98,512		109,952	108,687	317,151	1,157,082	1,474,233	1,726,896
58,913		87,587	102,710	249,210	847,798	1,097,008	2,820,900
77,957		185,068	138,298	400,423	1,098,616	1,499,039	2,901,864
9,851		144,332	186,314	340,497	1,022,731	1,363,228	3,056,892
10,657		98,277	137,707	246,641	561,206	807,847	2,989,057
11,231		104,796	176,717	292,744	677,593	970,337	3,228,991
8,836		146,358	213,980	369,174	640,054	1,009,228	3,367,424
11,529	21,593	36,625	173,075	242,822	549,782	792,604	3,079,848
103,207	45,584	46,669	105,801	300,801	586,172	886,473	3,573,990
40,931	46,480	64,079	103,965	255,455	695,402	950,857	3,340,927
50,586	117,985	42,846	160,339	371,446	776,624	1,148,070	3,601,419
16,467	52,321	56,174	172,950	297,912	808,435	1,106,347	3,539,821
13,355	48,383	89,413	166,310	311,461	1,032,886	1,344,347	3,722,044
10,800	11,174	111,102	287,644	420,720	989,120	1,409,840	3,787,391

Annual average Prices of British Muscovado Sugar.	RATES OF DUTY.				
	British Plantation, (Brown or Muscovado.)	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantation, (Brown or Muscovado.)	
per Cwt.	per Cwt.		per Cwt.	per Cwt.	
	£. s. d.			£. s. d.	
73s. 4d.	1 10 —	Charged as E. I. Sugar.	To 10 April, £1. 13. 8 11. p' cent. ad valor. 10 Apr. to 6 May £1.10. 5 May to 5 Sept. £1.11. From 5 Sept. £1.19.	3 3 —	*N. B.* Foreign Sugar was, during the under-mentioned periods, admitted to entry for the purpose of being refined, on payment of the following Rates of Duty:
61s. 10d.	1 10 —		To 5 May, £1.10. From 5 May, £1.17.	3 3 —	From 1 June, 1827, £1.9. per cwt.
48s. 7d.	To 5 Sept. £1. 10. From 5 Sept. £1. 7.		To 5 May, £1.19. 5 May to 5 Sept. £2. From 5 Sept. £1.17.	To 5 Sept. £2.3. From 5 Sept. £2.	From 28 July, 1828, to 5 July, 1830:
49s. 8d.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 — —	If not of greater value than the average price of Sugar of the British Plantations in America. £1.7. per cwt.
50s.	1 10 —		2 — —	3 3 —	
41s. 4d.	To 5 May, £1. 10. 5 May to 5 Sep. £1.8. From 5 Sept. £1. 7.		To 5 May, £2. 5 May to 5 Sept. £1.18. From 5 Sept. £1.17.	To 5 May, £2 3. 5 May to 5 Sep. £2.1. From 5 Sept. £2.	And further in respect of every shilling by which it might exceed such average price, 9d.
36s. 2d.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 — —	
33s. 2d.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 — —	From 5 July, 1830, to 5 July, 1831:
31s.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 — —	If not of greater value than the average price of Sugar of the British Plantations in America, £1.4. per cwt.
32s. 11d.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 — —	
31s. 6d.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 — —	And further in respect of every shilling by which it might exceed such average price, 6d.
38s. 6d.	1 7 —	To 5 July charged as E. I. Sugar; from 5 July charged as Sugar of the Brit. Plant.	1 17 —	3 — —	
30s. 7d.	1 7 —	Charged as Sugar of the British Plantat.	1 17 —	3 3 —	
35s. 9d.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 3 —	
31s. 8d.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 3 —	
28s. 7d.	1 7 —		1 17 —	3 3 —	
24s. 11d.	To 5 July, £1. 7. From do. £1. 4.		To 5 July, £1.17. From do. £1.12.	3 3 —	
23s. 8d.	1 4 —		1 12 —	3 3 —	

I give the following table, which I recently obtained at Liverpool, in order to shew the amount of West India trade carried on at the principal Ports of Great Britain. The London trade does not appear to have held its own during the last five years. The table now given will serve for comparative data at a future period.

Imports of Sugar, Coffee, and Rum, into the principal Ports of Great Britain during the last Five Years, and the Stocks remaining on Hand at the close of each Year.

	British Plantation Sugar.					Coffee, (including East India and Brazil.)										Rum.				
	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	1829		1830		1831		1832.		1833.		1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
Imports into	Casks	Casks	Casks	Casks	Casks	Casks	Bls. & Bags.	Casks	Bls. & Bags.	Casks	Bls. & Bags.	Casks	Bls. & Bags.	Casks	Bls. & Bags.	Puncns.	Puncns.	Puncns.	Puncns.	Puncns.
London	162300	158400	157000	145000	132400	23000	93500	24600	94000	16200	159000	20000	163400	11500	130000	44000	40300	48500	27000	32000
Liverpool	43700	42000	48000	45000	49000	7900	5000	7800	7300	8500	5500	9700	12500	6900	16600	11700	12000	16000	9300	10400
Glasgow	31700	29100	29500	31000	30600	1100	3450	1100	2160	620	1120	900	1700	640	5100	3100	2300	3000	2200	1200
Bristol	34000	30000	31500	27000	26000	430	120	320	40	70	20	100	250	150	120	2900	3700	4300	2100	2000
Totals ..	271700	259500	266000	248000	238000	32430	102070	33820	103500	25390	165640	30700	177850	19190	151820	61700	58300	71800	40500	45600
	Bags	Bags	Bags	Bags	Bags															
Mauritius	236000	400000	444500	415000	429300															
E. India, &c. ..	121300	198800	177500	136800	162000															
Stocks at	Casks	Casks	Casks	Casks	Casks															
London	43500	38800	36000	28000	36000	11450	98550	10900	106300	7250	113000	10500	91500	7000	105000	25800	30600	35000	25000	22000
Liverpool	11000	10500	10700	10500	13000	6000	7400	4500	6000	4800	5500	4500	5000	4000	5000	10700	11700	16000	11500	10000
Glasgow	10500	7400	5500	6500	10800	550	1700	530	1100	140	400	280	300	80	1000	2700	2350	3700	3300	1600
Bristol	10450	3500	4000	5500	5400	260	50	250	20	10		320		100		3400	4450	5500	4200	2700
Totals..	75450	60200	56300	50500	65200	18260	107700	16180	115420	12200	117900	15600	96800	11180	111000	42600	49100	60200	44000	36300
	Bags	Bags	Bags	Bags	Bags															
Mauritius	23000	36000	88000	66500	157700															
E. India, &c. ..	50000	91000	110000	110000	102000															

An Account of the Imports, Exports, and Home Consumption of Coffee, and of the Revenue collected thereon in each Year, from 1814 to 1831 inclusive, with the Rates of Duty for the same period;—stated for the United Kingdom.

Years.	IMPORT.				EXPORT.				CONSUMPTION.				Net Revenue collected upon Coffee.	RATES OF DUTY.		
	British Plant.	East India.	Foreign Plant.	TOTAL.	British Plant.	East India.	Foreign Plant.	TOTAL.	British Plant.	East India.	For. Plant.	TOTAL.		British Plant.	East India.	Foreign Plantation.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	£.	Per Lb.	Per Lb.	Per Lb.
1814	51,564,592	9,613,052	54,612,860	115,790,504	67,270,050	9,094,557	57,833,827	134,198,434	5,446,248	286,530	42,903	5,775,681	222,896	7¾d.	11½d.	2s. 4¾d.
1815	39,281,677	26,602,585	25,357,879	91,252,141	47,883,630	17,512,121	35,022,197	100,417,948	6,151,371	365,135	25,056	6,541,562	269,260	7¾d.	11½d.	2s. 4¾d.
1816	29,202,820	18,717,458	8,031,475	55,951,753	41,446,360	18,526,749	21,627,406	81,600,515	7,371,095	482,329	30,907	7,884,331	299,026	7¾d.	11½d.	2s. 4¾d.
1817	31,943,449	13,654,080	12,904,045	58,501,574	26,802,762	13,647,063	14,066,213	54,516,038	8,739,450	417,876	112,839	9,270,165	314,615	7¾d.	11½d.	2s. 4¾d.
1818	32,955,775	2,045,504	12,877,785	47,879,064	27,400,073	7,411,861	16,231,217	51,043,151	7,942,050	384,440	32,614	8,359,104	261,066	7¾d.	11½d.	2s. 4¾d.
1819	24,086,826	4,129,039	13,451,965	41,667,830	22,076,642	6,165,573	15,343,373	43,585,588	7,342,408	444,354	4,021	7,790,783	305,997	to 5 July 7¾d. from do. 1s.	to 5 July 11½d. from 5 July 1s. 6d.	to 5 July 2s. 4¾d. from do. 2s. 6d.
1820	29,939,217	5,497,721	13,404,688	48,841,626	23,996,856	4,307,370	16,136,643	44,440,869	6,816,033	285,945	1,431	7,103,409	342,828	1s.	1s. 6d.	2s. 6d.
1821	25,515,889	1,904,021	17,817,059	45,237,869	18,839,468	3,526,556	19,269,932	41,635,956	7,386,060	206,177	764	7,593,001	384,283	1s.	1s. 6d.	2s. 6d.
1822	30,828,366	4,487,859	8,686,899	44,003,124	22,379,541	3,599,814	9,846,180	35,825,535	7,494,218	171,717	3,416	7,669,351	387,342	1s.	1s. 6d.	2s. 6d.
1823	30,131,038	4,114,282	10,808,046	45,053,373	17,908,962	2,129,111	9,987,618	30,025,691	8,218,342	235,697	881	8,454,920	428,613	1s.	1s. 6d.	2s. 6d.
1824	34,987,294	5,760,912	9,926,043	50,674,249	24,824,778	4,718,389	9,974,569	39,517,736	7,947,890	313,513	1,540	8,262,943	420,988	1s.	1s. 6d.	2s. 6d.
1825	25,075,835	4,513,290	23,008,393	52,597,518	11,579,359	2,678,930	13,134,100	27,392,389	10,622,376	457,745	2,849	11,082,970	315,809	to 5 April 1s. from do. 6d.	to 5 April . 1s. 6d. from do. of Brit. Poss. 9d. of other places 1s. 3d.	to 5 Apr. 2s. 6d from do. 1s 3d
1826	24,831,824	5,520,354	11,664,925	42,017,103	14,386,921	5,670,077	11,837,280	31,894,278	12,409,000	791,570	2,753	13,203,323	336,570	from B America . 6d. from Sierra Leone 9d.	From British Possess. 9d. / From other Places. to 5 July 1s. 3d. from do. 1s	1s. 3d.
1827	29,189,746	5,872,511	12,875,790	47,938,047	12,442,426	4,655,104	12,378,340	29,475,870	14,676,968	888,198	1,210	15,566,376	399,690	ditto	9d.	1s.
1828	29,840,785	7,380,492	3,848,454	41,069,731	12,689,128	5,084,916	6,011,936	23,785,980	16,151,239	973,410	2,984	17,127,633	440,245	ditto	9d.	1s. 3d.
1829	26,862,528	6,335,647	5,873,040	39,071,215	8,093,095	7,474,169	7,456,146	23,023,410	18,495,407	974,576	6,197	19,476,180	484,975	ditto	9d.	1s. 3d.
1830	27,429,144	7,066,199	6,456,820	40,952,163	7,231,530	5,187,866	7,668,598	20,087,994	21,697,966	989,585	3,971	22,691,522	579,363	ditto	9d.	1s. 3d.
1831	20,116,381	7,686,500	15,204,947	43,007,828	2,139,392	6,525,417	13,820,665	22,485,474	21,501,966	1,234,721	3,940	22,740,627	583,751	ditto	9d.	1s. 3d.
1832																
1833																

An Account of the Quantities of Cocoa Imported into, and Exported from, the United Kingdom, the Quantities cleared for Consumption, the Rates of Duty and Net Revenue thereon in each Year, commencing 5th January, from 1820 to 1831, both inclusive.

Years.	QUANTITIES IMPORTED.						QUANTITIES EXPORTED.					
	British Plantation.	East India.	Foreign.	All Sorts.	Husks and Shells.	Chocolate and Cocoa Paste.	British Plantation.	East India.	Foreign.	All Sorts.	Husks and Shells.	Chocolate and Cocoa Paste.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1820	1,062,091		1,334,992	2,397,083	461,947	14	515,653		1,339,378	1,855,031		
1821	784,692		1,565,413	2,350,105	485,933	33	432,221		1,067,670	1,499,891		
1822	696,571		1,854,805	2,551,376	320,610	5	583,930		2,216,532	2,800,462		
1823	227,087		1,208,152	1,435,239	385,621	116	23,046		727,137	750,183	1,444	
1824	1,028,063		1,733,566	2,761,629	295,992	1,866	90,794		707,263	798,057	192	
1825	1,089,320		2,185,055	3,274,375	385,693	1,094	162,201		1,385,537	1,547,738		277
1826	621,928	174	1,605,561	2,227,563	519,087	1,807	368,519	160	1,373,790	1,742,469		210
1827	549,511		4,066,221	4,615,732	463,145	2,345	516,694		2,649,455	3,166,089		1,632
1828	459,718		1,177,282	1,637,000	340,716	1,957	43,869		1,434,668	1,478,537		166
1829	683,098		2,526,835	3,209,933	237,399	1,782	82,471		1,592,142	1,674,613		211
1830	742,349	828	1,322,339	2,065,416	348,626	1,685	20,537		1,354,357	1,383,894	5,057	283
1831	1,491,947		1,991,171	3,483,118	282,000	1,316	36,579		1,494,552	1,531,131		37
1832												
1833												

Years.	QUANTITIES CLEARED FOR CONSUMPTION.						RATES OF DUTY.					Net Revenue.
	British Plantation.	East India.	Foreign.	All Sorts.	Husks and Shells.	Chocolate and Cocoa Paste.	British Plantation.	East India.	Foreign.	Husks and Shells.	Chocolate and Cocoa Paste.	
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d. s. d.	£.
1820	276,277		44	276,321	461,947	14	1 0	1 6	2 6	Prohibited in Great Britain, but admitted in Ireland at 20 per Cent. ad valorem.	Prohibited.	14,339
1821	283,436		299	283,735	485,933	22	..	..	..			15,140
1822	267,090		405	267,495	320,610	5	..	..	..			14,031
1823	286,452		205	286,657	329,556	98	1 0	1 6	2 6	0 4	1 9	15,521
1824	317,342		1,599	318,941	307,251	1,114	..	..	..	..		21,077
											British Possession. Foreign.	
1825	346,733		518	347,251	367,268	991	0 6	0 9	1 3	0 2	1 9 4 4	14,295
1826	344,056	26	694	344,776	435,776	1,512	..	..	..	..		12,387
1827	385,625		168	385,793	413,988	1,995	..	..	..	..		13,287
1828	354,098		309	354,407	295,906	1,902	..	..	..	..		11,556
1829	382,920		10,927	393,847	244,139	1,728	..	..	..	..		11,943
1830	422,903	10	2,379	425,292	340,088	1,394	..	..	..	..		13,622
1831	494,741		8,065	502,806	343,781	1,257	..	..	..	..		15,329
1832												
1833												

SPICES.

An Account of the Quantities of the undermentioned Spices Imported into and Exported from the United Kingdom, and Cleared for Consumption, together with the Rates of Duty, and the Net Amount of Revenue in each Year, commencing 5th January, since 1820.

Years.	Quantities.			Rates of Duty.		Net Revenue.
	Imported.	Exported.	Cleared for Consumption.	British Possessions.	Foreign Possessions.	
				Per lb.	Per lb.	
	lbs.	lbs	lbs.	s. d.	s. d.	£
NUTMEGS.						
1820	91,192	114,277	90,771	2 6	3 6	11,212
1821	35,086	111,793	94,589			11,721
1822	45,568	55,863	112,096			14,000
1823	14,958	99,071	117,768			14,723
1824	83,438	101,185	129,702			16,177
1825	183,470	35,588	99,214			12,406
1826	338,702	79,579	101,117			12,624
1827	74,854	35,389	125,529			15,707
1828	58,685	32,518	140,002			17,514
1829	38,868	47,913	113,273			14,114
1830	247,912	163,045	121,260			15,158
1831	210,363	88,352	152,369			19,025
1832						
1833						
PIMENTO.*						
1820	1,226,235	1,169,951	250,630	0 10	1 3	10,341
1821	2,636,666	2,808,453	250,689			10,453
1822	1,605,590	1,340,141	294,395			12,273
1823	2,394,793	1,743,887	293,223			12,218
1824	2,499,250	2,135,666	298,412			12,418
1825	1,594,080	1,354,086	303,055	0 5		7,502
1826	1,564,469	1,428,739	330,473			6,884
1827	2,235,350	2,005,252	319,667			6,619
1828	2,269,545	1,677,922	310,182			6,459
1829	3,599,268	2,732,493	339,013			7,064
1830	3,528,104	2,262,951	348,525			7,249
1831	1,810,616	1,815,537	304,400			6,375
1832						
1833						

* The duty on this staple of Jamaica produce ought to be entirely remitted,—it produces little to the revenue, while freedom from impost would in this, as in all other instances, be a great stimulus to industry and commerce.

Years.	Quantities.			Rates of Duty.		Net Revenue.
	Imported.	Exported.	Cleared for Consumption.	British Possessions.	Foreign Possessions.	
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	Per lb. s. d	Per lb. s. d.	£
CASSIA LIGNEA.						
1820	175,477	212,566	32,064	2 6	2 6	4,008
1821	308,960	338,910	31,721	—	—	3,964
1822	272,868	375,722	33,581	—	—	4,195
1823	277,066	260,568	32,622	—	—	4,062
1824	639,188	559,651	42,797	—	—	5,056
1825	528,991	278,063	49,046	1 0	1 0	3,116
1826	533,948	347,784	43,182	—	—	2,159
1827	415,702	427,695	42,984	—	—	2,123
1828	549,535	356,320	55,787	—	—	2,769
1829	817,968	795,242	62,252	0 6	—	2,101
1830	837,589	797,642	65,705	—	—	1,624
1831	398,420	718,772	61,162	—	—	1,526
1832						
1833						
CLOVES.						
1820	8,428	143,776	36,554	2 0	3 0	3,657
1821	32,517	21,014	32,933	—	—	3,285
1822	106,946	42,381	49,765	—	—	5,027
1823	200,141	77,131	57,780	—	—	5,748
1824	387,412	186,191	60,323	—	—	6,035
1825	92,153	8,586	45,261	—	—	4,543
1826	280,350	75,247	52,701	—	—	5,279
1827	253,009	27,812	85,990	—	—	8,602
1828	484,368	152,687	61,216	—	—	6,149
1829	36,071	57,904	48,638	—	—	4,876
1830	158,006	39,576	60,111	—	—	6,061
1831	128,223	81,912	83,885	—	—	8,374
1832						
1833						
CINNAMON.						
1820	334,113	306,702	10,618	2 6	3 6	1,331
1821	417,635	298,538	12,002	—	—	1,504
1822	121,630	304,441	14,507	—	—	1,817
1823	900,799	418,356	14,225	—	—	1,767
1824	381,056	584,924	13,767	—	—	1,724
1825	425,643	400,425	14,098	—	—	1,766
1826	156,485	344,404	14,155	—	—	1,783
1827	1,267,444	359,692	14,351	—	—	1,808
1828	337,483	354,536	15,696	—	—	1,774
1829	544,225	386,108	29,720	1 0	0 6	1,342
1830	464,175	535,223	nil.	—	—	709
1831	225,869	504,643	23,172	—	—	584
1832						
1833						

GINGER.

Years.	Quantities.			Rates of Duty.		Net Revenue.
	Imported.	Exported.	Cleared for Consumption.	British Possessions.	Foreign Possessions.	
				Per Cwt.	Per Cwt.	
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£
1820	24,848	15,281	4,869	1 3 0	2 13 0	5,544
1821	15,253	15,036	4,172			4,635
1822	5,111	3,028	5,930			6,829
1823	5,809	767	6,079			6,982
1824	5,128	344	7,002			8,074
1825	10,375	300	9,516	0 11 6		6,310
1826	20,417	2,815	13,405			7,626
1827	12,253	6,504	12,383			7,121
1828	14,600	6,930	7,374			4,335
1829	11,007	11,209	5,947			3,403
1830	5,491	4,575	6,284			3,560
1831	5,315	6,092	4,816			2,800
1832						
1833						

MACE.

	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	Per lb.	Per lb.	
				s. d.	s. d.	
1820	7,266	48,857	12,193	3 6	4 6	2,174
1821	13,893	41,722	11,572			1,805
1822	16,837	37,458	13,498			2,361
1823	4,773	35,201	13,319			2,485
1824	28,739	32,871	16,879			2,967
1825	72,364	16,065	14,852			2,602
1826	118,975	51,079	15,600			2,720
1827	23,133	31,738	16,760			2,963
1828	42,134	37,783	16,094			2,829
1829	6,841	20,106	14,254			2,549
1830	15,789	14,596	12,600			2,205
1831	41,287	63,795	18,894			3,266
1832						
1833						

PEPPER.

1820	789,300	3,985,353	1,404,021	2 6	2 6	174,063
1821	852,038	1,630,968	1,256,532			156,206
1822	7,244,778	4,451,396	1,446,400			179,586
1823	6,137,993	5,241,141	1,368,983			170,627
1824	8,818,697	2,926,857	1,447,030			180,816
1825	5,438,428	3,330,958	850,087			106,222
1826	14,091,799	5,329,525	2,529,027	1 0	1s. 2d. 1s. 6d	126,517
1827	9,083,605	4,092,386	1,949,931			97,496
1828	4,987,630	4,226,031	1,927,718			96,468
1829	2,015,184	2,962,063	1,933,641			96,726
1830	2,816,598	1,488,238	2,009,154			100,492
1831	6,273,480	6,844,616	2,050,082			102,639
1832						
1833						

An Account of the Imports, Exports, and Home Consumption of Rum, and of the Revenue collected thereon in each Year, from 1814 to 1831 inclusive, with the Rates of Duty for the same period; stated for the United Kingdom.

Years.	Quantity Imported	Quantity Exported	Quantity entered for Home Consumption.	Net Produce of Duties.	Rates of Duty, British Plantation Rum.
	Imp. Gal.	Imp. Gal.	Imp. Proof Gal.	£	Per Imperial Gallon. s. d.
1814	7240537	3271206	3703835	2513578	—— 13 10
1815	5736372	2975538	3365785	2240472	—— —
1816	3258598	2325935	2428950	1636386	—— —
1817	5332737	2640062	2408311	1619425	—— —
1818	4580420	2633891	2631583	1775714	—— —
1819	5341494	1994974	2564883	1730446	—— 13 11½
1820	5878415	3108553	2489120	1684425	—— —
1821	5945738	2629[illegible]0	2324315	1576377	—— —
1822	3544929	1542133	2246839	1516645	—— —
1823	4069473	1550192	2349660	1590666	—— —
1824	4015554	1630919	2551646	1600827	—— 12 7½
1825	3286181	1241793	2095687	1278313	—— —
1826	4010755	1187725	4305316	1817108	—— 8 6
1827	4828954	1380517	3288606	1386726	—— —
1828	5297013	1598674	3277653	1382024	—— —
1829	5708558	1424512	3375866	1434782	—— —
1830	5569739	1344447	3658958	1600331	to 15 June 8 6; from 15 June 9 0
1831	6474769	2012405	3624597	1629881	—— 9 0
1832					
1833					

An Account of the Imports, Exports, and Home Consumption of Molasses, and of the Revenue collected thereon, in each Year from 1814 to 1831 inclusive, with the Rates of Duty for the same period; stated for the United Kingdom.

Years.	Quantity Imported	Quantity Exported	Quantity entered for Home Consumption.	Net Produce of Duties.	Rates of Duty, (British Plantation Molasses.)
	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	m	Per cwt. s. d.
1814	141227	24692	58829	21279	7 6¼
1815	119381	34674	66407	24740	7 6¼
1816	1647	37876	50247	18465	7 6¼
1817	7921	5599	19464	7328	7 6¼
1818	31832	389	32618	12248	7 6¼
1819	54919	2234	51187	21106	10 0 (from 5 July.)
1820	39990	6314	27895	13908	10 0
1821	58185	1795	57527	28549	10 0
1822	76298	749	78461	39278	10 0
1823	189968	868	161351	80622	10 0
1824	239088	1750	239540	119739	10 0
1825	355592	883	332453	166254	10 0
1826	290504	5488	279748	139958	10 0
1827	392444	928	412665	206331	10 0
1828	510708	441	381761	190852	10 0
1829	394432	2312	386143	193072	10 0
1830	250648	4824	337587	159683	9 0 (from 5 July.)
1831	332875	655	348631	156883	9 0
1832					
1833					

AN ACCOUNT of the Declared Value of the following ARTICLES of BRITISH and IRISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURE, Exported from the United Kingdom to the British West Indies, in each Year, from 1814 to 1830, inclusive; viz. Cottons, Linens, Woollens, Hardwares, Machinery and Manufactures of Metal, Grain, Provisions, Fish, &c.; Clothing and Lumber.*

YEARS.	Declared Value of the undermentioned Articles, Exported from the United Kingdom to the British West Indies.							
	COTTONS.	LINENS.	WOOLLENS.	Hardwares, Machinery and Manufactured Metals in General.	Grain, Provisions, Fish, &c.	Clothing of all Sorts made up.	Lumber; viz. Hoops, Staves and Headings.	TOTAL of the specified Articles.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1814	2228970	929707	301966	511014	1153864	472737	184152	5782410
1815	2609232	968586	307712	614289	826007	486134	95788	5907748
1816	1206457	575517	177533	507333	633684	355106	70314	3525944
1817	2147042	598272	278014	528763	770104	396881	67295	4786371
1818	1899165	596964	284450	592778	867894	496610	76784	4814645
1819	1086945	523735	250461	582620	775912	422861	81508	3724042
1820	1078931	562924	172598	414975	598567	376041	77838	3281874
1821	1320063	576897	177471	357818	564962	355392	69950	3422553
1822	872596	559392	177673	308713	444464	334814	48801	2746453
1823	1036674	552163	157022	316367	446555	370166	62906	2941853
1824	1108386	552427	151572	324797	497174	344149	61946	3040451
1125	1209350	527714	139122	348998	501296	348110	60542	3135132
1826	781412	401198	105515	363077	447401	319254	64775	2482632
1827	942846	479152	137001	340740	473828	340676	69276	2783519
1828	730850	412734	126262	395238	417808	330726	77180	2490798
1829	1050475	385303	119792	444139	445057	327063	60479	2832308
1830	646466	325623	99888	361450	394610	279662	58727	2166426
1831								
1832								
1833								

* This table shows how much our erroneous commercial policy has diminished the power of our colonies to purchase British manufactures; by our past system we have not enriched ourselves, while we have made others poor indeed.

AVERAGE PRICES OF SUGARS.

Year.	Average Price.		Weight of Cask.*	Duty.		Gross.			Charges including Duty.			Profits.		
	s.	d.	Cwt.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
1791	67	4	13	12	4	43	15	4	13	10	10	30	4	6
1792	69	4	..			45	1	4	13	10	10	31	10	6
1793	70	4	..			45	14	4	15	16	4	29	18	0
1794	54	0	..	15	0	35	2	0	17	11	0	17	11	0
1795	77	5	..			50	2	1	17	17	6	32	4	7
1796	77	0	..			50	1	0	17	17	6	32	3	6
1797	81	6	..	17	6	52	19	6	19	16	6	33	3	0
1798	86	0	..	19	4	55	18	0	21	0	4	34	17	8
1799	75	0	..	20	0	48	15	0	21	15	6	26	19	6
1800	74	0	..			48	2	0	21	15	6	26	6	6
1801	64	0	..			41	12	0	22	2	0	19	10	0
1802	54	0	..			35	7	5	22	2	0	13	5	5
1803	67	0	..	24	0	43	11	0	22	2	0	21	9	0
1804	80	0	..	26	6	52	2	0	26	6	6	25	15	6
1805	76	0	..	27	0	49	8	0	26	19	6	22	8	6
1806	68	0	..			43	14	0	27	6	0	16	8	0
1807			..											
1808			..											
1809	76	0	12½			47	3	3	25	9	9	21	13	6
1810	77	6	..	27	0	49	12	6	25	6	0	24	6	6
1811	67	0	..			45	5	0	28	2	11	17	2	1
1812	77	0	13			50	10	1	26	16	11	23	13	2
1813	92	0	..			60	19	2	29	10	10	31	8	4
1814	99	6	..			70	12	7	30	15	8	39	16	11
1815	99	0	14⅛			68	15	2	29	17	11	38	17	3
1816	81	0	..			58	5	8	27	15	6	30	10	2
1817	81	6	..			58	5	6	25	9	6	32	15	0
1818	84	9	..			60	1	11	27	1	4	33	0	7
1819	70	0	..			50	2	10	26	3	9	23	19	1
1820	67	6	..			47	9	11	25	8	11	22	1	0
1821	61	9	..			44	8	2	25	15	10	19	2	4
1822	59	6	..			43	6	8	25	15	7	17	11	1
1823	61	0	..			43	16	3	25	15	6	18	0	9
1824	59	0	..			41	17	11	25	0	7	16	17	4
1825	68	0	..			49	5	7	25	19	2	23	6	5
1826			..											
1827			..											
1828			..											
1829	53	0	..	27	0	37	17	7	26	3	1	11	14	6
1830														
1831														
1832														
1833														
1834														

Return of the Shipping, Foreign and British, employed in the Trade with the British West India Islands, from 1820 to 1830, both inclusive, distinguishing each Year.

Years.	UNITED KINGDOM.			
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1820	857	240,510	831	233,486
1821	884	245,321	891	246,180
1822	839	232,426	743	208,099
1823	861	233,790	842	232,717
1824	899	244,971	848	233,097
1825	872	232,357	801	219,431
1826	891	243,448	907	251,852
1827	872	243,721	906	248,598
1828	1,013	272,800	1,022	270,495
1829	958	263,338	918	252,992
1830	911	253,872	868	240,664
1831				
1832				
1833				

* *Note to page* 468.

Rates of Tares allowed on West India Sugar imported into Great Britain.

From Jamaica, Grenada, Tobago, St. Vincent, and St. Kitt's.

	Cwt.	qrs.	lbs.
Hogsheads, from 8 to 12 cwt. - - -	1	0	7
From 12 to 15 - - -	1	1	12
From 15 to 17 - - -	1	2	0
From 17 and upwards - - -	1	2	14

From Dominica, Antigua, Nevis, Montserrat, and Trinidad.

Hogsheads, from 8 to 12 cwt. - - -	1	0	7
From 12 to 15 - - -	1	1	4
From 15 to 17 - - - -	1	1	21
From 17 and upwards - -	1	2	0

Jamaica.*—Ships Inwards.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
1822	271	79,925	179	24,007	33	4,583	354	24,233	837	132,748	8,678
1823	322	97,597	136	16,349	266	30,867	277	18,375	1,001	163,188	10,087
1824	258	79,219	143	16,183	263	36,785	248	17,385	912	149,572	9,050
1825	274	84,740	105	12,557	179	24,866	218	15,874	776	138,037	8,404
1826											
1827											
1828	300	93,087	145	23,043			248	21,056	693	137,186	8,177
1829	240	75,541	165	22,974			269	25,687	674	124,202	7,948
1830	263	68,700	172	25,491			280	25,530	715	120,721	
1831											
1832											
1833											
1834											

Outwards.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
1822	310	96,193	151	22,241	33	3,986	373	29,190	875	151,610	9,408
1823	274	86,825	131	15,038	219	25,548	309	23,942	933	151,353	9,369
1824	301	92,779	141	15,052	260	35,635	238	17,645	940	161,111	9,563
1825	253	78,588	117	13,260	162	22,182	232	17,614	764	131,644	7,899
1826											
1827											
1828	277	86,532	138	19,959			285	28,610	700	135,101	8,010
1829	287	87,729	145	18,205			256	24,454	688	130,388	6,993
1830	290	87,480	154	21,766			255	21,501	699	130,747	
1831											
1832											
1833											
1834											

* Our statistical returns from Jamaica, as observed under the head of population in the Jamaica chapter, are extremely deficient. I give the above mutilated table, as I do many others in this work, in order to promote greater attention to the subject in future; it is only by means of accurate and full returns that legislation can be wisely performed, more especially in reference to commerce, where so much depends on just analytical comparisons.

Abstract of the latest Returns received from each of His Majesty's Slave Colonies of the Slave Population, distinguishing the Sexes.

	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Date to which the Returns have been made up.	When received in the Registry Office.
Jamaica - - -	158254	164167	322421	28 June, 1829	18 Dec. 1830.
Barbadoes - -	37691	44211	81902	For 1829.	18 Mar. 1830.
Demerara - -	37141	32326	69467	31 May, 1829.	Ditto 1830.
Berbice - - -	11284	10035	21319	1 Jan. 1828.	15 Dec. 1828.
Antigua - - -	14066	15773	29839	For 1828.	13 April, 1829.
Montserrat - -	2867	3395	6262	Ditto 1828.	8 June, 1829.
Bahamas - -	4608	4660	9268	1 Jan. 1828.	8 Nov. 1830.
Dominica - -	7362	8030	15392	For 1826.	15 Dec. 1828.
Grenada - - -	11711	12434	24145	31 Dec. 1829.	18 Feb. 1831.
St. Christopher -	9198	10112	19310	1 Jan. 1828.	23 Sept. 1829.
Nevis - - -	4574	4685	9259	For 1828.	21 Nov. 1828.
Virgin Islands - -	2510	2889	5399	Ditto 1828.	21 July, 1830.
St. Lucia - -	6280	7381	13661	Ditto 1828.	10 Dec. 1829.
St. Vincent - -	11583	12006	23589	31 Dec. 1827.	6 June, 1829.
Tobago - - -	5872	6684	12556	1 Jan. 1830.	11 Dec. 1830.
Trinidad - -	13141	10865	24006	31 Jan. 1828.	Ditto 1830.
Total West Indies -	338142	349653	687795		
Bermuda - -	2208	2400	4608	For 1827.	24 Nov. 1827.
Mauritius - -	47657	29117	76774	Ditto 1826.	18 Feb. 1829.
Cape of Good Hope	21210	14299	35509	Ditto 1825.	1 Oct. 1825.
Total - -	409217	395469	804686		

IMPORTS AND - - - - - -

IMPORTS.—In Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	544210	43963	48877	10284	21621	24224	693180
1823	608815	56051	109020	23714	166741	36318	998659
1824	389426	39225	73242	17168	203710	65372	788143
1825	353246	81950	89787	5542	143181	54846	728552
1826	381127	197075	84443	6804	313327	16453	999231
1827	219971	30528	69332	2675	5643	48717	376866
1830	203417					71869	369120
1831							
1832							
1833							

EXPORTS.—In Value sterling

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	447544	184914	1454	..	1372	12847	648131
1823	655480	348325	9516	..	24446	26477	1064244
1824	649832	137377	5710	..	16891	36114	845924
1825	670109	144517	10379	..	1829	32618	859452
1826	846646	423199	8802	..	11545	17696	1307889
1827	422798	120951	2260	56342		11016	557423
1830	624734						
1831							
1832							
1833							

These official returns from each W. I. possession are given by the author, at considerable expense, in order to leave nothing to make this volume the most complete and ample work that has ever appeared on the British West India Colonies. The years left blank are for the purpose of being filled

EXPORTS OF BARBADOES.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
70	18000	209	17279	14	1000	48	4000	341	40279	2849
95	23932	283	20108	113	12629	54	3573	545	60242	4084
89	22338	197	12547	117	14963	57	3541	460	53299	3476
91	24072	217	13034	88	11016	61	5046	457	52168	3818
79	19542	288	19694	120	15713	39	2724	526	57673	3916
90	22021	236	18878	8	949	125	8023	475	50776	3797
77	19406	289	23532	No. 170. Tons 10,994.				536	53932	

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
38	11620	248	24602	13	2200	32	2500	331	40922	2849
74	19420	267	22356	66	7191	37	2484	444	51451	3380
61	15594	247	20085	87	10936	61	4181	456	50907	3501
74	19025	262	21963	68	8661	48	3534	452	53163	3676
60	15699	357	29260	91	12754	26	2019	534	59752	3900
46	13042	312	26768	—	—	82	5842	440	45652	976
74	19580	367	30323	No. 103. Tons 6,742				544	56345	

up from time to time, as returns arrive from abroad. The most careless observer cannot but be convinced of the value of our colonies, when he sees the extensive trade which is carried on by the very smallest of them.

IMPORTS AND - - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Else-where.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	43500	2400	49322	..	19733	65009	179964
1823	50000	17568	20009	1143	51584	11897	152201
1824	50000	25779	21241	..	71530	8134	176784
1825	..	20173	21702	11530	81916	3819	139140
1826	Returns not received		..	..	..	..	..
1827	Not Ascer-tained.		28865	..	..	46936	75801
1828			41671	..	..	58789	100460
1829		8104	17485	..	..	62131	87720
1830		10895	12569	1000	1116	36737	62317

EXPORTS.— Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Else-where.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	154403	7000	16398	648	2039	11824	191664
1823	215950	13697	7313	1234	18787	4993	261388
1824	304423	19754	7248	3552	28336	4435	365430
1825	370730	21241	11443		52216	2895	462077
1826							
1827	108464	27537				16173	152174
1828	467124	38397				25772	530293
1829	278202	28678	18548	933		22405	348766
1830	197859	17981	14491		983	8774	220088

EXPORTS OF ANTIGUA.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States		Total		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
29	6907	119	7117	19	2064	172	7853	339	23941	1908
40	9272	142	7400	70	6988	40	1321	292	24981	1777
47	10787	117	7448	82	9252	44	1705	290	21192	1889
50	11190	116	6423	81	9615	21	1077	268	28305	1824
42	12043	162	9790	..	..	144	11656	348	33494	2507
29	5410	124	6832	..	..	281	9426	434	21668	..
69	13661	172	10534	..	..	276	10116	517	34311	..
50	11309	157	11101	..	..	281	10804	488	33214	2937
37	8381	148	9919	..	..	164	6878	349	25208	2050

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
22	5413	137	10527	14	1359	153	7288	326	24587	1883
35	7878	140	8515	68	6738	37	1257	280	24388	1668
48	11096	121	8031	82	9032	34	1510	285	29669	1780
43	9520	113	6985	71	9353	17	798	244	25656	1575
48	11230	240	11748			91	9713	379	32691	2614
20	4753	131	7644			271	9592	422	21989	——
50	10349	181	9657			235	9080	466	29086	——
47	9968	195	11918			259	11176	501	33062	2786
45	10576	157	9085	1	256	156	6373	361	26290	2084

IMPORTS AND - - - - - -

IMPORTS—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£.
1822	7000	3000	4500		716	3000	18215
1827	345	3385	995			2795	7520
1830	4998	9361	1185			2237	17781

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	36000	400	1200			4000	41200
1827	29900	1075	742			2950	34667
1830	23835	1650	2565			1679	29729

EXPORTS OF MONTSERRAT.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons	No	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
5	1254	27	972	1	60	14	531	46	2807	239
7	1773	56	2223			21	1135	84	5131	438
6	1324	49	1921			39	1237	94	4482	447
4	852	78	3865			28	1107	110	5824	579

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
5	1162	22	1381			20	707	47	3250	274
6	1465	38	1680			26	1174	70	4319	377
6	1210	27	1161			23	875	56	3246	283
5	1237	81	4060			33	1279	119	6576	648

IMPORTS AND - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America	Else-where.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	70500	11700	1900	58300	4700	25400	172500
1823	172666	7388	1022	37625	31698	39522	251975
1824	204166	25676	1897	32615	25421	46958	339142
1825	202416	20374	3272	30335	21529	24952	302878
1826	204166	20120	2123	28583	47779	49301	352074
1827	120400	15638	16142	27587	12631	34986	231384
1828	132915	18898	5050	97962	. .	86875	338700
1829	36774	19236	3713	10531	42	26851	97150
1830	69480	17144	3047	22674	1709	23797	137853
1831	23539	29853			38169		91561

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Else-where.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	40100	18700	4700	..	13300	120800	217600
1823	26524	19977	2522	..	38494	130141	317659
1824	32083	6919	5541	510	27183	245169	317407
1825	30333	9960	4772	..	25387	163393	233845
1826	23333	5718	1597	..	14193	88778	145305
1827	28328	4319	18636	..	2166	75944	129393
1828	24803	21329	7720	..	18383	51111	122472
1829	21222	15153	3222	..	22222	15157	76977
1830	15488	8859	2419	1375	13249	8768	50158
1831	12155	10046			52457		74658

EXPORTS OF BAHAMAS.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
10	1616	29	1929	7	440	76	3062	122	7047	705
12	2365	20	2558	308	41935	75	4014	424	50902	2133
11	2253	55	5460	193	19351	45	2428	304	29492	1715
14	2474	84	9986	69	5445	169	16351	335	34256	1657
8	1750	20	1186	57	2354	56	3071	141	8361	839
7	1647	38	2484	16	1001	73	3303	134	8435	713
8	1704	94	8554	227	34457	100	7674	429	52389	2516
10	1869	110	7799	23	3491	307	34787	450	47946	2645
10	2075	107	7948	30	3150	161	11429	308	24507	1879
11	2033	174	17827	No. 281 Tons, 28905				466	48765	

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No	Tons.	Men.
14	2299	51	4176	262	92660	95	5130	422	104265	2235
13	2470	38	3009	301	41677	85	3800	437	50956	2131
10	1898	62	5899	221	23361	61	2779	354	34941	1965
9	1816	52	3360	213	25932	59	2901	399	38559	1872
10	1940	52	3534	183	21498	65	3632	310	30604	1875
8	1740	37	3023	19	949	63	3640	127	9352	765
11	2082	108	8821	234	35275	91	5951	444	52129	2531
8	1629	113	8630	246	33042	88	5677	455	48978	2830
8	1765	105	7742	95	10513	85	4681	293	24701	1799
12	2054	92	7178	No. 395. Tons, 45032				499	54264	

IMPORTS AND - - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	352080	29736	28676	18687	11714	14676	455576
1823	406719	16174	95046	17293	44415	1382	580929
1824	468646	13381	98834	..	62283	20490	663634
1826	431155	21662	36516	..	44964	16448	550747
1827	533819	24361	136683	..	..	48599	743462
1828	505504	22781	147222	674	..	33624	709805
1829	586998	24560	139150	3179	..	50521	804408
1830	542107	21628	125168	..	541	45084	734528
1831	436527	35613			55694		527831

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	1185267	12210	40414	..	3993	171351	1413235
1823	1234482	7094	34202	..	15387	91676	1382841
1824	1243563	11912	41472	..	30286	87585	1414818
1826	1026732	34769	28013	..	17596	98257	1205369
1827	1684850	50673	48107	..	..	111991	1895621
1828	1544533	42693	38723	1682	110712	3097	1641440
1829	1649318	41812	43255	6281	..	143399	1884065
1830	1707605	51317	69667	101027	..	6088	1835704
1831	1411539	90416			53987		1536142

EXPORTS OF DEMERARA.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
..	Returns	not	received							
155	44254	146	14081	46	6748	23	3493	370	68576	3946
128	37037	141	15017	68	10272	28	3236	365	65562	3650
145	42442	176	16280	58	8973	33	3044	412	70739	4078
177	49964	250	28540	..	..	90	7941	517	86445	—
179	51318	288	27037	..	..	70	6722	537	85077	5157
184	53356	299	30266	1	245	105	8938	589	92805	5540
169	50438	319	31632	..	..	79	7170	567	89240	5230
190	54080	323	27498	No. 88. Tons 8182.				601	89760	

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
167	45844	144	12639	39	5406	18	3476	368	67365	3667
155	43148	168	14338	50	7549	22	2972	395	68007	3952
145	41701	201	16789	42	6498	17	2537	405	67525	3708
196	55917	321	25925	..	..	25	4446	542	86288	5065
196	55249	331	26504	..	..	14	3572	541	85325	5094
212	57870	355	30388	..	..	26	4932	593	93190	5525
192	54858	379	35872	1	96	23	3697	595	94523	5600
188	52412	336	27950	No. 39. Tons 5605.				563	85967	

IMPORTS AND - - - -

IMPORTS.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	54213	15390	12906	1515	2862	5712	92598
1823	66773	9013	13813	121	1205	4837	95762
1824	61292	8642	10531	..	10514	2618	93597
1826	84000	18500	9000	..	5300	850	117650
1827	58285	34542	15377	..	..	5665	113869
1828	71500	27000	25000	45	.	8000	131545
1829	77500	26202	17707	2517	..	7852	131778
1831	110450	40811			9916		161177

EXPORTS.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	257919	19110	4950	5932	931	82189	289031
1823	185910	33375	5439	..	385	49112	274221
1824	180256	15678	4037	..	5447	35552	240970
1826	152600	36700	9000	..	3000	26000	227300
1827	222428	31457	9771	..	..	34489	298145
1828	239350	41800	15427	..	..	23220	319797
1829	184736	53875	14137	..	..	30120	282868
1831	233242	65080			23515		323837

EXPORTS OF BERBICE.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
25	5300	162	8636	3	371	14	1684	204	15991	1089
31	6532	144	7381	2	220	3	1128	181	15261	1008
29	6816	133	6192	13	1972	6	1222	181	16204	1123
25	6303	158	7426	6	1114	1	270	190	15113	1057
33	8170	168	9475	..	..	17	1272	218	18917	1145
28	7105	189	11438	..	..	12	1190	229	19733	1366
26	6863	179	10894	..	..	16	1404	221	19161	1338
34	8927	194	10665	No. 14. Tons 1616.				242	21208	

EXPORTS,—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
31	6691	168	9075	3	421	17	1806	219	17993	1191
26	5363	83	4448	1	113	15	1457	125	11381	770
31	7139	150	6931	8	1582	4	1122	193	16774	1196
20	5156	182	10553	4	645	4	1004	58	17358	1245
31	7543	149	8595			3	758	183	16896	1124
27	6996	216	13279			7	985	250	21260	1489
25	6230	206	12168			8	1032	239	19430	1375
30	7737	210	11304	No. 6. Tons 1087.				246	20128	

IMPORTS AND - - - -

IMPORTS.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Else-where.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1827	34300	20900	..	..	..	11100	66300
1828	32175	8987	8192	..	..	32152	81506
1829	30198	33863	9354	..	..	12927	86343
1830	16316	20346	..	..	..	12953	49615
1831	56118	16563			2154		81835

EXPORTS.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Else-where.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1827	109400	5800	..	..	..	600	115800
1828	141075	3994	7848	..	..	1604	154522
1829	115481	2149	6392	..	..	931	118561
1830	135572	8375	..	..	..	2015	145962
1831	104545	10364			3852		118761

EXPORTS OF DOMINICA.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
9	2153	60	3197	..	..	79	3588	148	8938	..
12	3116	73	3794	..	..	107	4548	192	11458	1169
9	1988	80	4398	..	..	126	5214	215	11600	1275
7	1632	86	4448	..	..	131	5111	224	11191	..
14	3367	81	4175	No. 119. Tons 4167.				214	11709	..

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
11	2658	84	4472	..	..	49	1493	144	8623	..
16	3892	89	4825	..	..	81	2774	186	11491	1125
14	3529	102	5229	..	..	89	2415	205	11203	1231
15	3599	110	5578	..	..	106	3250	231	12427	..
14	3316	110	5187	No. 89. Tons 2753.				213	11256	..

IMPORTS AND

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1823	3404	23270	39302	..	29369	9261	104608
1824	766	39175	37893	..	27741	11021	116596
1825	11682	46951	26834	..	55737	2481	143685
1826	6387	3963	18355	..	39412	4090	107874
1827	7920	£54943		..	..	20252	83116
1828	7522	18934	37166	..	..	22240	85863
1829	16088	26133	92341	..	..	29748	164313
1830	3076	53342	..	..	..	16232	72652
1831	8541	56668			13791		79000

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1823	386914	11695	30527	..	26080	6092	455312
1824	302715	7094	27050	..	15234	7220	359313
1825	266418	23715	25090	..	19006	3805	337116
1826	238908	22975	21864	..	17846	2648	349241
1827	289744	50869		..	..	7292	347906
1828	504930	12713	31506	..	..	8537	557689
1829	310393	15802	25575	..	..	7656	359427
1830	214420	45143	.	..	..	3700	263264
1831	182410	31291			4649		218350

EXPORTS OF GRENADA.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
44	13750	79	6935	43	5219	21	1214	187	27136	1609
28	8346	83	7043	37	4273	14	954	162	20616	1263
40	11812	82	5926	40	4572	8	522	170	22732	1443
30	9033	132	8555	37	5227	31	1133	230	23948	1717
38	11538	154	10214			95	5760	287	27509	—
43	11525	166	11367			77	4426	286	27318	2085
56	16338	186	13240			100	6203	342	35781	2623
26	1796	211	13893			73	3868	310	25557	—
40	11473	218	13556	No. 50. Tons 3854.				308	28883	

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
41	12457	76	6766	41	4663	27	1529	185	25415	1561
37	11469	55	5225	31	3350	18	1095	141	21139	1250
37	10798	70	5372	31	3313	13	659	151	20142	1293
39	11237	129	7957	28	3511	15	609	211	23314	2178
33	10514	186	12154			63	3438	282	26096	—
48	13985	178	10383			62	3700	288	28068	2189
48	14120	233	15409			77	5885	358	35414	2634
	11707	235	15313			57	3624	332	30671	—
35	10116	229	13286	No. 46. Tons 4,003.				310	27435	

IMPORTS AND - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824	235335	8486	..	..	19100	65	262988
1825	244131	18806	97	..	24877	1917	289871
1826	303882	54648	..	..	28892	25303	412727
1827	271209	21610	628	..	..	20053	313502
1828	185929	16708	1894	..	..	33999	233756
1829	209199	28154	2311	..	..	4800	244464
1830	193692	4015	..	..	10180	26492	234379
1831							

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824	218522	4212	..	..	50068	22	272826
1825	232052	3280	75	..	58883	819	295111
1826	283076	4724	..	29578	32826	164	350370
1827	374394	8439	2150	..	..	9148	394132
1828	219798	10897	..	..	.	70650	301255
1829	219662	7800	..	..	..	27820	255282
1830	195192	3589	..	..	16184	102186	316151
1831							

EXPORTS OF HONDURAS.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Ton	No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
50	12721	6	519	20	2514	1	33	77	15787	866
27	7005	14	1641	20	2123	14	2744	75	13513	806
49	12084	14	1908	30	3977	6	863	99	18832	1065
60	16400	9	1195	..	..	23	1436	92	19041	1095
43	11282	7	849	..	.	29	2256	79	14387	872
37	9588	16	4357	..	...	6	801	59	14746	860
39	10035	8	497	18	2036	12	1350	77	13918	814

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
55	14032	7	576	23	2665	1	33	86	17306	974
49	12813	6	387	22	2682	5	245	82	16127	907
50	12585	11	888	34	4464	3	442	98	18379	1002
58	15530	6	633	..	..	19	1502	83	17665	1023
44	12225	6	361	..	..	25	2452	75	14038	868
41	10803	6	522	..	..	8	1275	55	12700	689
43	11053	5	305	7	1194	27	3799	82	16351	798

IMPORTS AND - - - - - -

IMPORTS—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824	..	5382	3647	..	10304	8728	28061
1825	66984	3706	1443	..	21700	3604	94737
1828	2602	30071	7490	..	..	40395	80559
1829	1901	17329	4876	..	..	35413	59520

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824	142623	3473	2291	..	9375	4162	161924
1825	102642	3238	1238	..	5850	4748	117706
1828	112108	3323	2674	..	..	5173	128278
1829	127568	11108	7262	..	..	3691	149560

EXPORTS OF ST. CHRISTOPHER.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
27	5979	9	708	15	1766	62	2083	113	10536	761
20	5739	95	2380	20	2503	60	1421	195	12043	1173
27	6882	245	9934	..	..	320	9831	592	26647	2835
28	7400	211	10798	..	..	317	10954	556	29152	2810

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
24	6702	16	914	21	2562	59	1750	120	11928	866
17	4368	101	4711	20	2374	48	1176	186	12629	1057
24	6213	293	11067	..	..	279	8741	596	26021	2918
26	6590	234	12108	..	..	262	8983	522	27681	2833

IMPORTS AND - - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824		818	1122		9747	3731	15419
1825	17585	240	625		17034	4185	50650

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824	39815	6025	683	..	4986	2190	53699
1825	62645	12789	2074	..	7996	2788	88293

EXPORTS OF NEVIS.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
9	2274	11	448	17	1862	20	950	57	5524	362
	1382	81	3937	21	2511	21	1044	131	8874	784

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
9	1939	31	905	17	1671	19	836	76	5351	433
9	2392	82	3038	19	2135	19	845	129	8410	767

IMPORTS AND - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	5,917	3279	..	..	2796	4548	13745
1823	5,917	3279	..	..	2796	4548	13745
1824	4,000	8754	..	..	780	1794	15328
1825	1,200	44	..	..	1032	2806	5080

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	45358	4520			420	884	51182
1823	45358	4520			420	884	51182
1824	18137	405			353	543	19438
1825	10185	616			81	899	20781

EXPORTS OF TORTOLA.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
6	1265	21	559	2	290	58	879	87	2993	745
6	1265	21	559	2	290	58	879	87	2993	745
6	1521	12	882	2	205	35	1047	55	4655	334
3	688	22	619	3	427	57	952	85	2666	418

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
5	1096	5	164	1	105	14	245	25	1610	132
5	1096	5	164	1	105	14	245	25	1610	132
6	1521	18	1324	2	205	33	1059	59	4109	363
4	943	13	284	2	329	62	1111	81	2667	315

IMPORTS AND - - - - -

IMPORTS.—In Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	47491	10377	10417	7512	6765	4393	86957
1823	51339	15985	6932	4708	14271	2175	95414
1828	43472	26507	13604	..	..	14222	97807
1829	57187	33261	10397	..	..	15864	116710
1830	68803	22284	3979	..	..	36642	212516
1831	13853	34109			16916		64878

EXPORTS.—In Value sterling

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	91616	20844			1643		114104
1823	66081	6530	5510		7831	210	86164
1828	111238	6317	9240			3532	130329
1829	100918	9211	5933			2882	118946
1830	104231	10077	6647			5653	126610
1831	51867	16646			14490		83003

EXPORTS OF ST. LUCIA.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
11	2893	70	5654	6	733	23	1111	110	10391	831
11	2039	55	3622	25	2843			91	8504	638
21	4657	120	6328			251	6764	392	17749	2434
24	5364	142	7325			259	8255	425	20944	2639
24	5364	132	5365			262	7829	418	20558	2634
18	3972	165	6187	No. 283, Tons, 10,233.				466	20382	

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
18	4226	57	3802	5	635	34	1862	114	10525	844
16	3264	67	3961	30	3199	7	120	120	10748	854
24	4657	107	5988	..		237	6441	368	17086	2339
22	5268	117	7052	..		290	8845	429	21165	2207
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
20	4528	188	7973	No. 259, Tons, 8,338.				467	20839	

IMPORTS AND - - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	92 600	18400	34800		2500	10000	158300
1824	101100	16000	29000	500	31900	11100	189600
1827	89235	38158	37758			22612	187764
1828	87137	17476	45430			28092	178135
1829	84513	31161	41706			27922	185303
1830	57135	25088	43282			22801	148307

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	410800	8200	22000		1100	12900	455000
1824	372500	14600	16200	1200	14000	5600	424100
1827	426829	28474	19529			6804	481637
1828	733506	20171	138889			5369	897935
1829	433964	23901	22389			1323	481579
1830	263347	37564	34597			2536	338045

EXPORTS OF ST. VINCENT.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
38	8644	107	10086	6	794	49	2270	200	21794	1440
56	15066	88	7266	42	4923	43	4923	229	29220	1890
61	16070	150	12852	..	..	114	5528	325	34450	—
59	15711	149	16714	..	..	160	8531	368	40956	2492
59	16520	210	15057	..	..	125	6104	394	37681	2872
36	10346	245	16427	..	..	104	5532	385	32295	2775

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
51	13565	97	6597	5	597	68	3678	221	24413	1807
49	12450	92	6505	42	4993	49	2756	232	26644	1794
54	14238	163	12291			116	5605	333	32134	
58	16906	207	13037			144	6243	409	36186	2980
51	14081	255	16726			114	6821	420	37628	2982
45	12732	292	17735			91	3588	328	34055	2763

IMPORTS AND - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Else-where.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£.
1822	170603	11530	32173	4344	8836	18605	246092
1823	277322	12860	24153	5715	26564	4480	351095
1824	203312	9559	19868	11852	33145	8012	285750
1826	297293	£61,403				101467	460163
1827	287178	24955	36584	525		79607	428849
1828	326285	11895	36906			72023	447109
1829	316106	13587	38289			66848	434830
1830	152818	13099	29620	1110		53908	250555
1831	182856	51197			65514		300567

EXPORTS —Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Else-where.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	238095	4012	23941	28660	2994	1852	299558
1823	265881	3319	15326	57551	17425	3461	362965
1824	261437	4325	18965	60167	19639	623	365197
1826	327332	£36194		..	£89788		453314
1827	352912	10764	30099	43762	..	11276	448813
1828	416521	11057	20279	4694	..	26319	478870
1829	401965	9548	23064	4245	..	12774	451628
1830	167657	9178	14769	..	..	7478	199082
1831	202057	£30628			11907		244392

EXPORTS OF TRINIDAD.

IMPORTS—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
40	9421	175	13614	12	1788	50	3508	277	28131	2838
74	16375	172	10577	51	6583	45	2446	275	35981	2909
Returns not received.										
77	18305	151	10532	..	..	214	19399	442	210236	4212
83	18697	185	11845	..	..	158	11043	426	41585	—
102	22364	151	12884	..	..	176	11371	429	46619	—
99	24333	179	17058	..	..	206	14324	484	55715	—
59	13865	174	13681	..	..	148	10619	381	38165	—
88	21611	189	14860	No. 103. Tons, 9136				380	48787	

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
58	12812	169	12184	9	1354	43	2296	279	28646	2448
68	15958	174	10694	50	6613	43	2430	335	35695	2836
Returns not received.										
76	16920	167	1039	..	..	178	17368	421	44327	—
87	19823	217	15139	..	..	124	11380	428	46342	—
109	23928	218	15986	..	..	102	8435	429	48349	—
101	23804	245	19171	..	..	135	11104	481	54079	—
71	17755	216	17191	..	..	123	10235	410	45181	—

IMPORTS AND - - - - -

IMPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	From Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	25000	13000	31500		850	5000	75350
1823	40686	10644	5337		5745	11007	73419
1824	40642	9593	7936		12771	1936	72878
1825	41224	9029	9706		12471	2374	74804
1826	42136	12055	11906		14472	2174	81293
1827	50563	32014	42426	1196		6108	132307
1828	52871	16391	20678			9991	99932
1829	62479	16574	15881			13256	108192
1830	40963	12352	11969			11827	77114
1831	54530	57961			4750		117241

EXPORTS.—Value sterling.

Year.	To Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1822	131500	3150	3200			1100	138950
1823	147160	3870	6630	360	6717	1542	166279
1824	172539	5595	3137		10155	1784	193210
1825	192342	2073	14750		3401	1574	214140
1826	153061	2225	4976		4396		164633
1827	114183	6117	2300			2537	125137
1828	198375	4040	7265			620	210301
1829	138574	6878	4991			1908	152352
1830	100661	6318	3043			767	110790
1831	144384	15686			220		160290

EXPORTS OF TOBAGO.

IMPORTS.—Ships Inwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
21	5300	48	3594	1	107	10	559	80	9560	658
29	7067	37	2549	11	1289	7	175	84	11080	778
22	6027	37	2603	19	2407	4	331	82	11368	854
30	8141	27	2376	12	1067	8	478	77	12062	652
25	6525	56	4186	10	1166	8	526	99	12403	894
27	6461	79	5657	..	...	16	833	122	12951	1037
29	6818	81	5565	..	..	20	1379	130	13762	1035
37	9002	94	6589	..	..	20	1588	151	17179	1307
23	5892	97	6228	..	..	26	1825	146	13945	1072
28	7127	108	6647	No. 20. Tons, 1478				156	15252	

EXPORTS.—Ships Outwards.

Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States.		Foreign States.		Total.		
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Men.
27	6265	51	4391	..	..	13	696	91	11352	763
30	6943	22	1876	10	1075	8	434	70	10328	631
23	6323	27	2651	13	1586	19	2073	82	12933	786
22	6410	15	1383	11	1090	3	181	51	9064	492
27	6456	56	3714	6	548	2	68	91	10786	851
18	4849	77	6266	11	499	21	1521	127	13135	1016
32	7758	85	5994	..	..	15	1171	132	14923	1127
25	6528	105	8711	..	..	15	1037	145	16276	1260
26	6917	121	8590	..	..	11	717	158	16224	1414

The following returns of Exports from Demerara, Berbice, Tobago, and Trinidad, I received from the Board of Trade too late to insert in the proper chapters treating of the possessions referred to. I give them as historical documents for future comparison.

DEMERARA—PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT.

YEARS.	SUGAR.	RUM.	MOLASSES.	COFFEE.
	Hogsheads.	Puncheons.	Hogsheads.	lbs.
1822	47,453	22,030	10,334	10,494,769
1823	55,453	17,741	19,803	8,085,729
1824	47,542	13,477	24,637	7,761,135
1825				
1826	44,457	19,365	16,365	5,890,446
1827	58,360	19,431	25,814	4,782,253
1828	59,652	13,592	31,822	3,809,875
1829	59,589	22,517	21,237	4,684,991
1830	58,111	27,847	19,585	5,025,256
1831	52,844	18,164	21,807	1,227,705

BERBICE—PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT.

YEARS.	SUGAR.	MOLASSES.	RUM.	COFFEE.
	Hogsheads.	Casks.	Puncheons.	lbs.
1822	4,416	581	600	4,098
1823	5,081	1,143	1,050	2,602
1824	6,138	2,540	913	2,005
1825				
1826	1,356	1,827	1,664	1,230
1827	6,424	429	1,912	4,785
1828	6,198	1,024	2,563	1,989
1829	5,258	248	2,738	2,239
1830				
1831	10,850	279	2,117	2,241

TRINIDAD—PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT.

YEARS.	SUGAR.	COFFEE.	RUM.	MOLASSES.
	lbs.	lbs.	Gallons.	Gallons.
1822	29,366,667	346,588	89,965	316,574
1823	31,815,551	394,730	35,351	634,252
1824	31,498,773	267,678	47,922	788,742
1825				
1826	36,532,238	285,933	41,331	917,979
1827				1,218,463
1828	49,531,539	277,627	44,915	1,218,463
1829	43,135,662	190,332	70,927	1,150,943
1830	28,072,596	136,900	27,500	534,280
1831	33,593,969	894,289	19,521	1,943,952

TOBAGO—PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT.

YEARS.	SUGAR.	MOLASSES.	RUM.
	Hogsheads.	Puncheons.	Puncheons.
1822	7,509	442	5,111
1823	8,760	850	4,667
1824	8,681	401	5,053
1825	8,110	757	5,484
1826	8,760	300	5,477
1827	5,419	138	4,136
1828	8,685	812	5,450
1829	7,570	183	4,154
1830	6,687	48	4,220
1831	8,453	138	5,171

APPENDIX O.

ADVANTAGES OF MAKING THE BRITISH WEST-INDIA ISLANDS FREE PORTS, PARTICULARLY TORTOLA, ILLUSTRATED BY THE EXAMPLE OF THE DANISH ISLAND OF ST. THOMAS.

NOTHING in the system of restrictive policy has been more palpably injurious to national or colonial prosperity than the refusal to place Tortola on the same footing as St. Thomas in regard to free port privileges; and, what is equally singular, the English packet calls at the foreign island of St. Thomas instead of Tortola, although Tortola is preferable in geographical position, in the convenience of the harbour as a healthy residence, and in every respect which could entitle it to a claim to a fair and honourable commercial competition. Both are nearly unproductive as sugar colonies; in order to prevent the little sugar grown in Tortola from being increased in quantity by foreign sugar being smuggled in and becoming naturalized as British plantation, and paying the British duty only, an Act of Parliament was passed in 1802, and renewed in 1806, but which expired in three years, limiting the annual export of Tortola sugar to the average export thereof during the preceding seven years, thus protecting the other colonies from injury, from an unlimited import of foreign sugar becoming nominally British, and benefiting accordingly as to duty in the home market. But all the other restrictions, as to imports from foreign countries into this colony, were continued, and the measure was almost valueless as an experiment of an unrestricted free port to compete with her neighbour St. Thomas.

It is evident, then, that all restrictions as to imports and exports must be done away at Tortola, saving the limitation as to the quantity of British plantation sugar to be exported.

A duty of one-quarter, or even half per cent., *ad valorem*, may be raised on imports, to pay the charges of government. At present, to use the language of a public functionary there, whose practical knowledge and intelligence are unquestionable, 'a more distressed and deserted island I never saw. As to trade there is none. The shipment of sugar is a mere bagatelle. Yet such a spot for rivalling St. Thomas is not possessed by the Government. The trade is now very large to that island. Vessels from the windward islands would save by it two days' sail, at least, by not going so far to leeward to bear up again.'

The trade, in value to St. Thomas, is stated at 2,000,000 sterling: the profit on this trade may be estimated at ten per cent. nett, or £200,000. Now, why should not Great Britain at least share in this profit? It may be asked, what would you have?—what do you mean by an unrestricted free port? This; that the people of all countries should be at liberty to settle there—to purchase land—to build houses—to be entitled to all the privileges of natural born British subjects—and to be, during good conduct, equally protected in person and property, with permission to import and export in vessels of any country the produce and manufacture of every country. Let us consider the objections. Other British colonies might ask for similar privileges, and could not be refused if the experiment succeeded and if it enriched the colonists. And why should they be refused? But, unless the other islands could move themselves to the site of Tortola, they could not benefit by the trade she would have with the two Americas, in addition to that with Asia and Europe. Tortola is geographically placed for the purposes of commerce between the old world and the new, and may be made the link to unite them in trading intercourse and in the bonds of friendship, just as St. Thomas does now, which is the great pawnbroker's shop of the tropics, where goods are deposited for sale, and money lent on them to enable the trader to go and fetch a fresh cargo. The present British free ports are so fettered by regula-

tions, that they are mere nominal free ports, called ironically by the Americans, regal republics.

There should therefore be no jealousy on the part of the British Islands, nor should the *experiment* be denied on this ground to an almost barren island; but, if it be *practicable* in the productive *agricultural* colonies, why not give them the same privilege—the shipping interest may possibly from misconception object, but they will not be injured by foreign ships trading to Tortola, where not above two or three British ships go now; these would still go to bring the mortgaged sugar home; —nay, the ship owners would be benefited, for many British ships would trade to Tortola instead of the many foreign ones which now go to St. Thomas from the British connection in a British island; and if the British ships did not supersede the foreign ships they would not be in a worse position than now. In short, it is sharing with a foreign island and competing with foreigners, and not with British capital, except as far as British capital has been attracted to St. Thomas's, from the culpable negligence or perverseness of Great Britain by St. Thomas having been permitted to supersede her next door neighbour, Tortola. There is in Tortola a large free African population let loose on the island and wanting employment; there is a British apprentice population, occupied in raising sugar at a larger cost than elsewhere, and who have not adequate employment. Will you give these people employment by trying an experiment, which may benefit that community and can injure no other, and may be of great service to the manufactures, commerce, and navigation of Great Britain. Tortola has some claim too on the benevolence, I may say justice, of the British Government. As the price of a British Constitution she paid in 1774 the four and a half per cent. duty to the crown, amounting in 1820 to £105,000. sterling, no part of which has ever been applied to island purposes. She erected at her own expense fortifications to preserve the colony to the Crown amounting to £22,000. She experienced a tremendous hurricane in 1819, nearly fifteen years ago, from which she has never recovered;

her losses, ascertained on oath, having been upwards of £150,000. sterling; and will it be credited in these liberal days, when one hundred thousand pounds were given two years ago by Parliament to Barbadoes, and St. Lucia, and St. Vincent, under precisely similar circumstances, and a loan of half a million sterling for ten years, that Tortola was in 1820 refused a Government *loan* of £10,000. *sterling for any period;* the Colony has necessarily continued in the same state of misery ever since—their slaves not allowed to be moved to more fertile colonies, have become of little value, and these very misfortunes become a new source of loss in the reduced rates to be paid to them for slave compensation out of the twenty millions.

There have not for many years been any troops in Tortola. In 1832 they were threatened with insurrection among the negroes, the commander of a Danish ship of war, Captain Bodenhoff, of the St. Jan, landed his marines, laid off the town, and thus at that time preserved the island to the Crown of Great Britain, at least the remaining property there, to its subjects.

It has been stated that from the great resort of vessels of all nations and flags to St. Thomas's, that the slave trade dealers find in the large magazines or stores of St. Thomas facilities in fitting out slave vessels, and that many are so fitted out it is presumed without the knowledge of the authorities, but arising from the island being so convenient in all respects. If this charge is as true as it is believed to be, it is an additional reason for sharing the trade between Tortola and St. Thomas. Lieut.-Col. Moody, Royal Engineers, thus explains the nature of the free port of St. Thomas.

'Let us suppose a vessel from the Spanish main to arrive at St. Thomas, a Danish *unlimited* free port. If the vessel has a cargo of produce, the value thereof is declared to the chief officer of the customs, who also now is chief military and naval officer in the colony; as it is a very small one, the King's duties are ascertained, and the fees to all the officers in like manner determined on a per centage. There is no

trouble about paying so much to the collector, so much to the comptroller, then to the searcher and waiter; again to the clerk, and finally to the naval officer, as in the English Custom House, when fees are paid. When the captain thinks he has done, then comes payment for permits, certificates, bonds, &c. of which the poor captain cannot see the necessity. In St. Thomas all kinds of fees are moderate, and paid at once to one person, who accounts to the King for the amount, and the King divides the amount according to fractional shares, keeping one-third for the Crown. The vessel being now entered, and the Spaniard having sold his cargo, if he did not bring up dollars with him, as is generally the case, he visits the different merchants' warehouses, often with the crew laden with dollars, in bags, at his heels. In one warehouse he buys British goods, in another American, and East Indian, in a third French, and a fourth German goods, &c. or he may find in one store (as the warehouse and shops are called), all the articles he wants collected together. The Spaniard having made his bargains, an important arrangement takes place, which induces him to perfer the *unlimited* free port to a free port like those of the English colonies. According to the part of South America to which he is going, does he *assort* his packages, and suit their size to the load of a man, a mule, or a canoe, according to circumstances. Each package must contain a variety of articles, many of which he could not get at the English islands, but at a great price. In some packages may be seen a piece of nankeen from China, silk handkerchiefs from Madras, a piece of linen from Germany, ribbons and gloves from France, muslin and chintz from England, &c. These packages are almost infinitely varied and faithfully invoiced, so as to suit all classes of customers. Their new forms and smaller bulk also enable the Spaniard to land and unload his cargo at unfrequented bays, after he has evaded or bribed the Guarda Costas, and in like manner he disposes of his goods, avoiding the payment of the national duties to the King of Spain or the Colombia Republic. This kind of trade, it will be perceived,

can only be carried on where foreign vessels of different nations are permitted to make a depôt, as no one nation could furnish all the articles without an increase of expense, which would defeat the object, and hence our English free ports have failed. This sort of trade, when the Spaniard visits the free port, is that most profitable to the European merchant, and it will now be seen that, from the superior value of those assorted packages to the customers of the Spaniard, it is more advantageous for him to pay the duties and fees at St. Thomas, rather than purchase packages less saleable at an English island, though he would have neither duties nor fees to pay. The repetition of this idea so often demands an apology, but it is upon it that the whole question turns respecting free ports in the West Indies. It will also be seen that for some time to come in a thinly settled country, this clandestine trade will flourish, as the Spaniard, whose case we have supposed, will continue to be able to undersell even the merchant who may import his goods direct from Europe to the Spanish main. The latter must pay warehouse room, and enormous duties on foreign commerce, and heavy fees to corrupt men in the new government. All these expenses must be put on his goods, and which the contraband trader avoids. Mr. Sarqui, one of the first foreign merchants at St. Thomas, and who has had the greatest experience in that trade, told me, that encouraged by a fair and moderate tariff of duties, especially promulgated by the Colombian Republic, he sent down two vessels to La Guayra, laden with goods, proper for the market, and the vessels entered at the Custom House in a legal manner. As soon as his and some other vessels had begun taking in their loading, the tariff of duties was altered by the government to a scale extravagantly high, so that he and other merchants had generally suffered considerable pecuniary losses whenever they depended on the government of South America. Such proceedings on the part of the executive are considered by merchants to justify smuggling, in which manner, for many years past, trade has almost universally been carried on. These considerations,

with some others which I have not time to detail with all the circumstances necessary to give them due political weight, induce me to believe that for some time to come the markets of South America will continue to be supplied from unlimited free ports, notwithstanding the formation of Republican forms of government, in a country where individuals are not found with capitals to trade on their own accounts, and where the executive either wants the necessary strength or the necessary integrity to induce prudent men to invest much capital amongst them. This trade is now chiefly engrossed by the Danish Island of St. Thomas, but I think it possible, without any sacrifice for Great Britain still to enable Tortola to partake of it.' In illustration of the foregoing I give an Extract from a Letter from the Speaker of the Assembly of Tortola, dated 1st July, 1830.

'Tortola feels the existing restrictions more sensibly than any other island, and it produces only about three and a half cwt. of sugar to one negro, and which is almost the only production, cotton being nearly abandoned from the low prices in England, and rum not worth the making, as it obtains in St. Thomas only about 20 cents, or 10*d.* sterling per gallon, and the puncheon is given to the purchaser, which at the above price is 25 per cent. of the whole; the freight down is 10 per cent., and the commissions, storage, &c. there, is five per cent., leaving little more than one half to the seller.

About 1,400 hogsheads of sugar have been made per annum on an average of the last seven years, but not near so much will be produced this year, as the rains have fallen incessantly. From the above we conclude that the whole produce of the island cannot weigh for one moment with the mother country a mere drop in the ocean. And now let us consider the advantages to be derived from a different system: and 1st. as to salubrity, Tortola is admitted on all hands to be full as healthy as any other island in the West Indies,—a circumstance of very considerable importance to European settlers. The harbour is large, and capable of containing any number of ships of any burthen, as the road-stead may with

propriety be classed with it, it being entirely land-locked around, and excellent anchorage throughout, and deep water through all the passages; indeed, ships and vessels of all descriptions choose to come inside to take advantage of the smooth water.

The rising land around the harbour offers the most beautiful sites for building upon, and the flat on which Road Town principally stands, is most convenient for wharfs, landing-places, &c., the water being deep close up to the shore. There are two strong fire-proof stores built, and others would very soon be in progress.

Would Great Britain concede to us such a boon, under the protection of the British flag and British laws, it is not too much to say that every class of merchants, now trading to, or residing at St. Thomas, would immediately take advantage of it, as there is no single convenience connected with St. Thomas, which Tortola either does not now or could enjoy two fold; in point of healthiness, no comparison can be drawn. At a small expense it might be rendered almost impregnable to attack in time of war, as there is a reef which runs out, on which a water battery might be constructed, to command both the harbour and road-stead, and be covered by the forts now built on the hills around and over the town. The constant presence of vessels of war would not be necessary, either for the protection of the commerce or revenue, as nothing could either enter or depart without permission.

The duties to be levied ought not perhaps to be too high, as it would be principally an entrepot for the division of cargoes for the main. St. Thomas demands a nominal duty of 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, on all cargoes entered, but a twentieth part is seldom given in, and no surveillance follows; notwithstanding which the Governor-General of St. Croix, the Commandant of St. Thomas, and other officers receive immense salaries out of the colonial chest of St. Thomas, whilst the contents of that in St. Croix, is remitted to Copenhagen. There is also an impost under the name of weigh money, of the nature of which I am not informed.

A petition was sent from here some time ago to request that the packets from England might wait here instead of at St. Thomas, when it was asserted that it would be inconvenient for the packet to wait at Tortola, in consequence of the mail-boat from La Guayra not being able to beat so far to windward without detaining the packet. The fact however proves the contrary, as the boat from the main, after leaving her bags with the packet, and stopping on her own account twenty-four, or perhaps forty-eight hours, arrives at or passes by Tortola on her passage to windward, very frequently some days before the arrival of the boat from Barbadoes following the packet, and as in this case she would not have to call at St. Thomas, she might at least be here two days earlier. Surely this will not be considered too much for a British Island to ask of the Parent State.

The next most convenient island, as to geographical position for an unlimited free port, is Dominica, situated between the French islands of Martinique and Guadaloupe; it would command a large trade with them and other countries. The succession of hurricanes, which since the last war have desolated this island, has reduced the colonists to the lowest ebb of despondency. Nothing but a thriving trade can restore the prosperity of this once flourishing colony, which has received no assistance from the governor to repair the mischief arising from these fatal visitations.

APPENDIX P.

The following is an estimate of the sum of £16,167 required to be voted by Parliament, to defray the charges of the salaries of Governors, Lieut.-Governors, and others in H. M.'s West India Colonies, from 1st of April, 1834, to 31st of March, 1835:—

Governor-in-Chief of Antigua, St. Christophers, Dominica, and their dependencies, £3,000; Lieut.-Governor of St. Christophers, ditto of Dominica, each £1,300; *Governor-in-Chief* of Barbadoes, St. Vincents, Grenada, and Tobago, £4,000; Lieut.-Governor of Grenada, £950; Lieut.-Governor of Tobago, £1,300; Lieut.-Governor of the Bahamas, £1,200; Secretaries to the Governors-in-Chief of Barbadoes and Antigua, £300 per annum each; Chief Justice of Tortola, £178; ditto of Anguilla, £200; Lieut.-Governor of Grenada,* £273; ditto of Dominica,* £366; clerks and stationery to the Governors-in-Chief, £200; total, £16,167.

* To be abolished as vacancies occur.

APPENDIX Q.

WEST INDIA POST-OFFICE CHARGES AND ARRANGEMENTS.

RATES OF PASSAGE IN THE W. I. PACKETS.

	Cabin.	*Steerage.*
From Falmouth to Madeira	£28	£15
From ditto to Bermuda via Halifax	45	25
To or from Halifax and Bermuda	12	7
From Bermuda to Falmouth via Halifax	40	22
From Falmouth to Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Grenada, St. Lucia, Martinique, or St. Domingo	43	22
From ditto to Dominica or Guadaloupe	44	23
From ditto to Antigua or Montserrat	46	25
From ditto to Nevis or St. Kitt's	47	26
From ditto to Tortola, St. Thomas, or Jamaica	48	27
From ditto to Carthagena or Honduras	55	30
From ditto to Vera Cruz or Tampico	60	32
From St. Thomas to Falmouth	50	28
From Jamaica or Havanna to Falmouth	60	32
From Carthagena to Falmouth	66	35
From Vera Cruz to Falmouth	70	38

Female servants to pay two-thirds of the Cabin passage-money. Men servants as steerage passengers.

N.B. All former rates to be cancelled.

Peace Establishment, 17th August, 1832.

LEEWARD ISLANDS.—12 weeks; sail Saturday after 3rd Wednesday every month. Route: to Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Martinique, Dominique, Guadaloupe, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, St. Kitt's, Tortola, St. Thomas, and Falmouth.

MEXICO, JAMAICA, AND HAYTI,—18 weeks; sail Saturday after 3rd Wednesday every month. Route: to St. Domingo, Jamaica, Belize, VERA CRUZ, Tampico, Vera Cruz, Havannah, and Falmouth.

JAMAICA AND CARTHAGENA.—16 weeks: sail Saturday after 1st Wednesday every month. Route: to Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Grenada, JAMAICA, Carthagena, Jamaica, Crooked Island and Falmouth.

POST OFFICE REGULATIONS.—Of the two monthly packets, which arrive at Barbadoes from Europe, the first called the 'Jamaica packet,' after landing her mails for Barbadoes, &c. proceeds (in the event of her

arriving before 12 o'clock,) the same day, with the English and Barbadoes mails to St. Vincent and Grenada, and from thence direct to Jamaica; but should she arrive after twelve o'clock, she remains at Barbadoes until the following evening.

The day after the arrival of this packet, the mail-boats invariably sail, and in the following order, viz:—

No. 1. Demerara direct: after landing her mails there, she proceeds, the next tide, to Berbice, where she remains three days. She returns to Demerara, and from thence to Barbadoes. This boat may be expected to return in about fifteen days from the day she left Barbadoes.

No. 2. St. Lucia, touching at the whole of the islands northward to St. Thomas's. She remains at each of the same islands six hours, on her return to Barbadoes. In 21 days she may be looked for at Barbadoes.

No. 3. Tobago, Trinidad, Grenada, and St. Vincent, remaining 24 hours at each island, and returns direct to Barbadoes. Fifteen days is the usual time in which this route is performed.

No. 4. La Guayra; remains there one week, and from thence proceeds to St. Thomas's, where she remains six hours. This boat returns direct to Barbadoes, and is considered due in 28 days from the time of her leaving Barbadoes.

The second monthly packet, usually termed the 'Island Packet,' sails the next afternoon, should she arrive before sunset; but if she arrive after sunset, she does not sail until the second afternoon. She proceeds to St. Lucia, and touches at all the islands northward to St. Thomas's, where she awaits the arrival of the eight-day boat, with the English mails. The mail-boats sail the same day with this packet, viz:

No. 1. St. Vincent, Grenada, and Trinidad, at each of which islands she remains only sufficient time to land the mails, and then proceeds to the other. On reaching Trinidad, she returns immediately to St. Vincent, and there takes off the mails for Europe, which are ready for her arrival, and conveys them to Grenada, where they remain until the Tobago and Trinidad mails reach that island, when the whole are forwarded to St. Kitt's by the same vessel. This service is usually performed in 21 days.

No. 2. Tobago, remaining there three clear days, to receive return mail for Europe; and then proceeding to Trinidad for the mails of that island, when she takes both to Grenada to join the mail-boat at that island from St. Vincent, and calls at the latter, on her return to Barbadoes. Fifteen days is the time usually occupied in completing this service.

No. 3. Eight-day boat sails the day after a week of the sailing of the packet; that is, if the packet sail on a Tuesday, Wednesday week is the day for the boat. She touches at St. Lucia, and the whole of the islands northward to St. Thomas's, where she remains twelve hours; and on her return to Barbadoes, she remains six hours at each of the same islands;

She is considered due at Barbadoes about the fourth week of her departure.

No. 4. Demerara direct; after landing her mails there, she proceeds, the next tide, to Berbice, where she remains three days. She returns to Demerara, and from thence to Barbadoes. In fifteen days she may be expected to return.

N. B. The mails are closed at the Post Office at 3 o'clock P. M. on the days of sailing.

The two monthly mails are made up at the Post Office, St. Martin's-le-Grand, London, on the first and third Wednesdays in each month, and the regular times for the sailing of the packets from Falmouth, are the Saturdays next following the first and third Wednesdays in each month. Each packet is considered to be due at Barbadoes five weeks after the regular time of her sailing from Falmouth.

RATES OF PASSAGE IN THE W. I. MAIL-BOATS.

	Dollars.
From Antigua to Barbadoes	32
——— to Dominica	24
——— to St. Kitt's, Montserrat, or Nevis	16
From Barbadoes to Antigua	32
——— to Demerara, Dominica, Grenada, or St. Vincent	24
——— to St. Kitt's, Nevis, Montserrat, or Surinam	40
——— to Tobago	16
——— to Trinidad	32
From Demerara to Barbadoes	24
From Dominica to Barbadoes	24
——— to Antigua, St. Kitts, Nevis, or Montserrat .. .	24
From Grenada to Antigua, St. Kitts, &c.	32
——— to Barbadoes	24
——— to St. Vincent	16
From St. Kitts, Nevis, &c. to Antigua	16
——— to Barbadoes	40
——— to Dominica	24
From St. Vincent to Antigua, St. Kitts, &c.	32
——— to Barbadoes	24
——— to Grenada	16
From Tobago to Antigua, St. Kitts, Nevis, or Montserrat	32
——— to Barbadoes	24
——— to Grenada, St. Vincent, or Trinidad	16

Servants to pay half price. A reasonable Freight also for all baggage above a bed and trunk. Passage-money paid before the baggage is delivered.

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